

GAZETTEER

OF THE

SHÁHPUR DISTRICT.

1883-4.



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PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

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P R E F A C E.

THE period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the *Gazetteer* of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work ; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from district officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the *Gazetteer* of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft *Gazetteer* compiled, between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by district officers ; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilised. Of the present volume, Section A of Chap. V (General Administration), and the whole of Chap. VI (Towns), have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner ; Section A of Chap. III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report ; while here and there, and especially in the matter of ancient history, passages have been extracted from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to. But, with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost, if not quite verbally, from Colonel Davies' Settlement Report of the district.

The report in question was written in 1866, and necessarily affords somewhat inadequate material for an account of the district as it stands at present. No better or fuller material, however, was either available or procurable within

the time allowed. But when the district again comes under settlement, a second and more complete edition of this *Gazetteer* will be prepared ; and meanwhile the present edition will serve the useful purpose of collecting and publishing in a systematic form, information which had before been scattered, and part unpublished.

The draft edition of this *Gazetteer* has been revised by Colonel Davies, Colonel Corbyn, Mr. Frizelle and Mr. Macnachie, and by the Irrigation Department so far as regards the canals of the district. The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been fixed throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of transliteration.

THE EDITOR.

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Table No. 1 showing LEADING STATISTICS.

DETAILS.	DISTRICT.	DETAILS OF TAHSILS.			
		Sh. Sajpur.	Khusab.	Dhera.	Bhera.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Total square miles (1891)	4,671	1,032	2,473
Cultivated square miles (1873)	620	234	254
Cultivable square miles (1878)	3,096	727	1,150
Irrigated square miles (1878)	633	375	46
Average square miles under crops (1877 to 1891)	537	167	207
Annual rainfall in inches (1873 to 1891)	16.1	16.1	11.9
Number of inhabited towns and villages (1891)	637	233	139
Total population (1891)	421,503	122,633	131,615
Rural population (1891)	369,877	105,901	119,530
Urban population (1891)	51,631	16,632	11,765
Total population per square mile (1891)	65	119	53
Burni population per square mile (1891)	79	103	48
Hindus (1891)	53,025	19,304	14,970
Sikhs (1891)	4,702	1,491	2,006
Jains (1891)	9
Mosalmans (1891)	357,712	101,531	111,629
Average annual land revenue (1877 to 1891)*	429,592	141,431	113,376
Average annual gross revenue (1877 to 1891) †	533,663	141,431	113,376

* Fixed, fluctuating, and after黜al.

† Land, Tribute, Local rates, Excise, and Stamp.

SHAHPUR.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

The Sháhpur district is the southernmost of the four districts of the Ráwalpindi division, and lies between north latitude $31^{\circ} 32'$ and $32^{\circ} 42'$, and east longitude $71^{\circ} 37'$ and $73^{\circ} 24'$. It is bounded on the north by the Jhelum which separates it from the Pind Dádán Khán *tahsil*, and by the Talágang *tahsil* of the Jhelum district, on the east by the Gujrát district, and by the Chenáb which separates it from Gujránwála, on the south by the Jhang district, and on the west and north-west by the districts of Dera Ismáil Khán and Bannu. It is divided into three *tahsils*, of which that of Bhera lies to the east and comprises so much of the *cis*-Jhelum portion of the district as lies opposite Pind Dádán Khán. Of the remainder of the district the *cis*-Jhelum portion constitutes the Sháhpur, and the *trans*-Jhelum portion the Khusháb *tahsil*.

Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several *tahsils* into which it is divided are given in Table No. I on the opposite page. The district contains one town of more than 10,000 souls, viz., Bhera with a population of 15,165. The administrative headquarters are situated at Sháhpur near the bank of the river Jhelum, in the centre of the district. Sháhpur stands 7th in order of area and 24th in order of population among the 32 districts of the province, comprising 4.40 per cent. of the total area, 2.23 per cent. of the total population, and 2.12 per

cent. of the urban population of British territory. The latitude, longitude, and height in

feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown in the margin.

Extending as it does from the river Chenáb to the Salt Range, and including portions of those mountains, the district, though for the most part plain, presents more than one variation of soil and climate. On either side of the Jhelum, which divides the district into two nearly equal portions, stretch wide plains at present barren, or productive only of a coarse growth of brushwood. Much, however, of this area is composed of good soil only requiring irrigation to make it productive of fine crops; indeed, if we except the *thal* of the

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

General description

Town.	N. Latitude.	E. Longitude.	Feet above sea-level.
Sháhpur	...	$32^{\circ} 17'$	$72^{\circ} 29'$ 647
Khusháb	...	$32^{\circ} 19'$	$72^{\circ} 24'$ 649
Bhera	...	$32^{\circ} 29'$	$72^{\circ} 57'$ 690
Fákerar	...	$32^{\circ} 32' 31''$	$71^{\circ} 25' 36''$ 4,993

General features.

* Approximate.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.
General features.Physical features of
southern half of
the district.

Sindh-Ságar Doáb, there is little land that would not repay the labour of the husbandman, could he but procure water at a moderate cost. As it, however, some 83 per cent. of the area is in a state of nature; while in the southern half of the district, cultivation is for the most part confined to a strip of land varying from 3 to 15 miles in width along the banks of the Chenáb and Jhelum rivers. The most important physical sub-divisions of the district are, the Salt Range in the north, the valleys of the Jhelum and Chenáb, and the plains between those rivers and between the Jhelum and the Salt Range. The characteristics of these two plains are widely different, though both are barren and unproductive. The desert portion of the southern plain is termed the *bár*; the corresponding tract north of the Jhelum is known as the *thal*.

At first sight it would seem that there is little to describe in this part of the district, so much of sameness is there in the general aspect of the country; but closer observation reveals features worth noting. First, there is the general slope upwards from the low cultivated lands to the high and dry expanse of the *bár*. The ascent, though of course common to both sides of the Doáb, is far from uniform. In places it is so gradual as to be almost imperceptible, the fact revealing itself to the traveller inland only by the increase of waste and jungle, and the decrease of life and cultivation. In others the transition is so abrupt as to be almost startling. The latter is the case on the Jhelum at intervals from the boundary of Gujrat westward to Sháhpur; but after leaving this point, a marked change takes place, the belt of cultivation rapidly increasing from three or four miles, the average width hitherto, to two or three times as much by the time the southern boundary of the district is reached. Again, on the side of the Chenáb the rise in the surface level is more gradual than on that of the Jhelum, and as a consequence, cultivation extends further inland along the former river. The people account for this by affirming that the river itself, at no very remote period, flowed considerably to the west of its present course; and the explanation is probably correct, as the remains of what appears to have been the former bed of the stream,* or at least of a very important branch, are still plainly visible, winding along at distances varying from six to ten miles, almost parallel to the present course of the river. It may also be worth noting that, on the Jhelum side, the otherwise continuous rise of the land is interrupted in the most capricious manner by a series of abrupt depressions. These are met with at intervals of two or three miles, and extend in places to distances of not less than fifteen miles from the present position of the river, of which they also were probably at one time branches. From these and other indications there is reason to believe that both these rivers have been gradually receding from their original positions, the one to the east, the other to the west.

Cultivated portion
divided into the
khár and *nakka*.

The zones of cultivation, on both sides of this Doáb, are divided by the people into the *khár* and the *nakka*. The former is the alluvial tract immediately bordering on the rivers. It contains the

* Known by the name *Budhi nai* or old stream; the Lahore road crosses it between Bhaglánwala and Laksin.

finest villages; almost every acre of it is under cultivation during the *rabi* harvest, and little or no irrigation is required to bring its luxuriant crops to maturity. The latter is the strip of country lying between the *hillaṛ* and the *bāṛ*, beyond the fertilizing influence of the inundations of the river, yet not so far as to render artificial irrigation unprofitable. Tillage in this tract may be said to be entirely dependent on wells, water is found at distances varying from 35 to 50 feet from the surface, and both spring and autumn crops are grown. Villages, as might be expected, are fewer, smaller, and, as a rule, not in such flourishing condition as those in the more favoured tracts bordering on the rivers.

The space intervening between these belts of cultivation is occupied by an expanse of jungle known by the generic title of the *bāṛ*. No lengthened description of this inhospitable region is required, as, in its principal features, it closely resembles the allied tracts in the Rechna and Bāṛi Doabs. As before stated, the soil is good; but water is so far from the surface,* that irrigation from wells would be too expensive for adoption were even the water sweet; as a rule, however, this is not the case, and the utmost that is ever attempted in the way of tillage, is the raising of an occasional rain crop in hollows, which, from receiving the surface drainage, are, in favourable seasons, kept sufficiently moist to allow of the ripening of the crops. But the main use to which the *bāṛ* is put is as a pasture ground for cattle, immense herds of which are to be found roaming at will through these prairie jungles, and in ordinary seasons, finding ample sustenance in the rich crops of grass which spring up after rain. Population is scanty and villages here few, and separated from each other by great distances.

In a region so generally arid, tree-vegetation is as a matter of course very limited, and such as is to be met with is confined to the more hardy varieties, those which require comparatively little moisture for their spontaneous growth. Accordingly, we find that the only trees indigenous to this district are the *kikar* (*Acacia Arabica*), the *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*), and the *fardsh* (*Tamarix indica*) in the low lands; and in the *bāṛ*, the *karīl* or wild caper, (*Capparis spinosa*), the *jand* (*Prosopis spicigera*) and the *pilu* (*Salvadora oleoides*); these latter form a dense jungle in which the *pilu* largely predominates. In addition to the foregoing, in favourable situations near the rivers and by the sides of wells, may be found specimens of the *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*), *sirus* (*Acacia sirus*) and other kinds; but they are nowhere to be seen in any numbers, and the probability is that they are not of natural growth. Much has been done, since our occupation of the country, to promote the growth of useful trees, and every day the results are becoming more apparent.

The northern half is by far the most interesting portion of the district, containing as it does such varieties of scenery and climate, such contrasts of soil, vegetation, and natural capabilities. The lowlands along the right bank of the Jhelum have little to distinguish them from the corresponding tract on the opposite bank of

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Cultivated portion divided into the *hillaṛ* and *nakka*.

The *Bāṛ*.

Character of vegetation south of the Jhelum.

The tract north of the Jhelum.

* From 60 to 75 feet.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

The tract north of the Jhelum.

the river; but on leaving these and moving inland, all resemblance to the country south of the river ceases. Looking to the north, a hard level plain, in places impregnated with salt, and throughout almost devoid of vegetation, occupies the foreground; beyond it extends a zone of a few miles of cultivation, and the view is shut in by a barrier of rugged and apparently barren hills; while on turning to the east and south, is seen an interminable plain, the soil of which, changing from the hard clay of the *mohár* to the sand of the *thal*, gradually loses itself in the horizon. The area included within this general description is made up of three strongly marked natural divisions: (1) the Salt Range; (2) the cultivated plains along the base of these hills, sub-divided popularly into the *mohár* and *dandu*; and (3) the *thal*. Each of these deserves separate notice.

The Salt Range.

The portion of the chain of hills called the Salt Range, included within the limits of this district, commences at the village of Padhrár on the east, and ends on the west at the Sakesar hill, the highest peak in the range, a total length of about forty miles. At its narrowest part, opposite Katha, the range does not exceed eight miles in width; but from this point it rapidly increases, till at Jabbí the interval between the plains on both sides cannot be less than twenty miles; thence it narrows again rapidly, and the external ridges on both sides of the range, closing round the Sún valley, unite and form the Sakesar hill. The area between these limits is made up of a number of rock-bound alluvial basins, of which the largest, the Sún and the Khabaki valleys, occupy the northern half of the range, while the lower portion is cut up into a number of very diminutive valleys and glens, by a succession of limestone ridges and their connecting spurs. Of these, the Patál and Sakesar mountains, with the intermediate chain of lower hills, form the central watershed, issuing from which the surplus drainage passes off to the south into the plains below, but to the north, finding no outlet, it collects in the lowest parts of the valleys and there forms lakes. In this part of the range, there are three of these sheets of water, of which the Ucháli lake, or Sunundar as it is called, is by far the largest; of the other two, one is situated between the villages of Khabaki and Mardwál, and the other in front of the small village of Jálhar. The southern face of the range exhibits a very rugged and broken appearance, its distorted strain, rent cliffs, and huge detached masses of rock telling plainly of the violence of the commotion which must have attended the birth of these hills. The irregularity of the outline on this side is further increased by the occurrence of a succession of deep indentations, through which the surplus waters of the range empty themselves into the plains below. But on the north, the contour of the hills is for the most part smooth and undulating, and the descent into the plains of Pakkhar and Taligang easy and gradual.

The scenery of the Salt Range throughout is pleasing, in places is grand and picturesque; and its hills and valleys, situated at elevations varying from 2,500 to 5,000 feet above the sea-level, enjoy a climate many degrees cooler than that of the plains, and not unlike that of Kashmír. The soil, formed of the gradual disintegra-

tion of the limestone and sandstone rocks of which the upper surface of the range is chiefly composed, is exceedingly fertile, and its powers are being constantly renovated by fresh deposits of alluvium brought down by the torrents which discharge into the valleys the drainage from the surrounding hills. Cultivation here is almost entirely dependent on rain; but owing to the comparative coolness of the climate, which by reducing the evaporation from the surface economises the supply of moisture, the crops in ordinary seasons ripen without the want of artificial irrigation being felt; so much is this the case, that it is a common saying among the people that the *rabi* crop in the Sün valley (the richest and largest in the range) has never been known to fail. These hills, moreover, are not without the attractive influence on clouds which similar masses exert elsewhere, and as a consequence the fall of rain in the range is far greater than in the plains to the south; this fact of course materially contributes to the stability of its cultivation.

The vegetation on the southern face is of the scantiest description, being confined to a few stunted *phuldhī* trees (*Acacia modesta*) and the *salsolas* and other plants peculiar to soils impregnated with salt. In the interior of the range, however, a notable change in this respect is observable, for, although it is nowhere well wooded, yet trees of many kinds are to be met with in considerable numbers, and the hill-sides are everywhere green with bushes of the bog myrtle (*Dodonea burmanniana*) and a plant (*Adhatoda vassica*) called by the natives *balekar*. Trees of all hardy kinds will grow luxuriantly in the valleys, but as a rule all have been cleared away to give room for cultivation. The trees which are found in the greatest numbers and appear indigenous, are the wild olive (*katī*), the *phuldhī* above spoken of, the common Indian mulberry, and the *kunger* (*Grewia betulæfolia*.) A great number of other varieties are to be seen as single trees, here and there in the beds of torrents, or by the side of watercourses. The *shisham* thrives well in the valleys, without, however, attaining to any great size, but the climate is too cold for the *siras*.

The plains extending along the base of the Salt Range, known to the people as the *mohár*, present a marked and disagreeable contrast to the valleys above. A fertile strip of alluvial land from three to four miles in width, slopes rapidly away from the hills, closely intersected by the beds of torrents. It is succeeded by level plains, in places impregnated with salt, and barren, in others formed of good culturable soil. The only approach to vegetation consists of *karīl* bushes thinly distributed over the surface, with here and there trees of the *fardsh* and *kikar* varieties growing in the beds of torrents. Tillage is almost exclusively confined to the upper portion (the *mohár* proper), the land there being of better quality and in quantity more than sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants; the lower part (the, *danda*) is chiefly used by the villagers as pasture grounds for cattle.

The most important streams of this tract are, the *Vahi* which debouches on to the plains near the village of *Katha*; the *Surakka* which waters the fine estates of *Jabbi* and *Dhokri*; and the *Dhodha*, which, after receiving the drainage from *Sakesar* and the hills round

Chapter I.
Descriptive.

The Salt Range.

Vegetation of Salt Range.

The *mohár* and *danda*.

Streams.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.Scarcity of good
water in the *mohar*.

Amb, fertilizes the lands of the border village of Kiri Golewali. But of the many channels by which the drainage of the Salt Range is conducted into the plains, the first named is the only one that holds a constant supply of water.

The scarcity of good water is one of the marked characteristics of this part of the district. The springs of good water which here and there are to be found trickling out of the crevices of the rocks above, become in their passage through the inferior salt strata so brackish, as to be quite unfit for use by either men or animals; and the sub-soil everywhere throughout this tract is so thoroughly impregnated with saline matter, that all attempts to obtain good water by means of wells have hitherto failed. Hence the population are driven to store up supplies of this necessary of life in tanks, but the heat, increased by radiation from the adjacent rocks, is so intense that not infrequently these reservoirs dry up before they can be replenished; when this occurs the people are put to great straits, having often to perform a daily journey of many miles to obtain water sufficient for themselves and their cattle. It may be added that these tanks are in indiscriminately used by men and animals, and hence in course of time the water becomes so impure as to be of fruitful source a disease, of which guinea-worm is not the least distressing, as it is the most common form.

The *Thal*.

In common parlance, the entire expanse of country south of the Salt Range, beyond the influence of the rivers, is called the *thal*; but in speaking more discriminately, this word is used to indicate that portion of the district which is situated south of the road from Khushab to Dera Ismail Khan. A casual observer would say of this dreary region, that it resembles nothing so much as an angry sea, sand-hills being substituted for waves; and to a certain extent the remark would be true of a portion of the *thal*; and yet such a description would convey a very imperfect notion of the country known by this name, for it leaves out some important features, without which the sketch is wanting in truth, and degenerates into a caricature. To render the likeness complete, we must add that the waves or hillocks of sand possess this peculiarity; that they all run in one direction, north-west and south-east; that in the intervals between these waves occur patches of hard soil, which produce good crops of grass; while the whole surface is covered by stunted bushes. Nor is this all; the general sandy and undulating character of the *thal* is in places broken by long stretches of perfectly level ground (called *patti*), which under artificial irrigation produce excellent crops. One of these belts occurs west of Núrpur, and extends without a break as far as Muzaffargarh: its average width in this district is about two miles. Here the best villages are to be found, and throughout the *thal* it is only in the *patti* that masonry wells are to be met with.

Vegetation of the
Thal.

The vegetation of the *thal* consists almost entirely of low brushwood and grasses. The few trees may be counted on the fingers, and, with rare exceptions, are to be found only round villages. The *ber* seems to be the only tree that survives in any numbers the scorching heat and long-continued droughts of this arid region. The bushes to be seen everywhere are the *phog* (*Calligonum polycot*).

noides), the *lána* (*Caroxylon fastidium*), the *búi* (*Pauderia pilosa*) on which camels browse, the *madár* (*Colatropis gigantea*) and the *harmal* (*Peganum harmala*) which nothing will touch. Of the two last, the former yields a fine floss, which has been successfully worked into rugs, and might be utilized in other ways, and the latter is used by the people as a medicine, and is popularly supposed to possess many virtues. The yield of grass in favourable seasons is considerable, but still, owing to the prevalence of sand-hills on which little or no vegetation is to be found, the same area will not support so many cattle as in the *bdr*. Of the many varieties of grass produced the *khabal* (the *dhúb* of Hindustán), the *dháman* and *chhimbar*, all prostrate grasses, are the most prized.

It has been already stated that masonry wells are not uncommon in the *patti*. These are all sunk in the immediate vicinity of villages, and are used both for domestic purposes and to raise a small crop of wheat or vegetables. In other parts of the *thal*, *kacha* or unlined wells are dug and periodically renewed as required. It has been found that wells of this class fail in after being used for twelve or eighteen months. They are never employed by the people for irrigation, but solely for supplying drinking water for themselves and their cattle. The water of the *thal* is all more or less brackish, and it is only after long use that it can be consumed without producing injurious effects. It is found at distances varying from 45 to 60 feet from the surface.

From the foregoing description it will be seen that Nature has formed this tract to be the abode of a pastoral population alone, and it is by such that we find it peopled; but the change from anarchy to settled Government has so far modified the habits of the people, that whereas, prior to British rule, they subsisted entirely on the produce of their flocks and herds, having no fixed abodes, but moving from place to place wherever a good supply of grass was to be found, they are now to be seen gradually settling down into permanent habitations, and availing themselves of every opportunity offered by the seasons to add to their other resources, by cultivating the patches of good soil with which the ridges of sand are everywhere interspersed. A marked change has taken place in this respect, and with the growth of settled habits an attachment to the soil is being rapidly developed.

The success of agriculture in this district is largely dependent on the annual floods from its rivers. The district is traversed throughout its length by the Jhelum. This river, otherwise known as the Vitasta and Behat, rises in the south-eastern corner of the Kashmir valley, after traversing which it is joined by the Kishnganga, and the united streams from this point, flowing nearly due south, enter British territory a few miles above the town of Jhelum. The river, from the moment that it enters the plains, following the general slope of the country, adopts a more westerly course, which it maintains without much variation till it mingles its waters with the Chenáb at Trimmu, a few miles below the town of Jhang, having traversed in its passage through hills and plains a distance of not less than four hun-

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Vegetation of the
Thal.

Supply of water.

Habits of the popu-
lation.

Rivers.

The Jhelum.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

The Jhelum.

dred and fifty miles, of which about two hundred have lain in British territory. In the plains the Jhelum is a muddy river, with a current of about four miles an hour. The average width of the stream in this district, at flood, is about 800 yards, dwindling down in the winter months to less than half this size. Fickle as all Indian rivers are, from the circumstance that they flow through a flat clayey soil unable to resist the action of water, perhaps none can surpass the Jhelum in this respect, nor in the damage which it annually causes by its vagaries. This fact, combined with the comparative narrowness of its channel, has probably led to the existence of a custom, which will be fully described in its proper place, by which the integrity of states on both banks of the river is preserved. A remarkable feature of this river is the sudden freshets to which it is subject. These occur after very heavy rain in the hills, when the swollen stream, overleaping its banks, inundates the country for miles on either side, and then gradually subsides within its normal bounds. These freshets, or *kangs* as they are called by the people, are very different in their character to the floods caused by the melting of the snows, as they seldom last more than one or two days. In favourable seasons several of these inundations take place, and it is not easy to exaggerate the beneficial effects produced on the large area thus submerged. The soil becomes thoroughly saturated, and its productive powers often greatly enhanced by the deposits of alluvium left by the receding waters.

The Chenâb.

For twenty-five miles the Chenâb forms the boundary between this district and Gujrânwâlâ. Draining as it does a larger area the volume of its waters is greater than that of the Jhelum; but then its stream being broader, the current is more sluggish, and it is not liable to shift its channel so frequently or so rapidly as that river. Its width during the rains, at the ferry opposite Pindi Bhattiâ, is considerably over a mile. Impetuous while in flood, its average velocity does not exceed two and a half miles an hour. As an agent for adding to the productive powers of the soil, the Chenâb is decidedly inferior to the Jhelum, the deposits left by its floods being inferior both in quality and quantity.

Canals.

Inundation canals may now be counted as a distinct feature in the agricultural system of the district, and will find appropriate mention here. Although by no means new to the district, as evidenced by the many remains of such works to be met with along the edge of the *bar* on the Jhelum side, all that ever existed had been allowed to fall into disuse, and had long ago become silted up. At length in 1860, one of these was experimentally cleared out by Mr. McNabb, then Deputy Commissioner of the district. The partial success of the trial, combined with judicious encouragement, led Sâhib Khân, Tiwâna, a wealthy and enterprising native gentleman, to excavate an entirely new canal to water a grant of waste land of which he had obtained a long lease. Fortunately for the future of the district, the work was completely successful, and the *malik's* gains large; and from that time it has been the duty of the District Officer rather to control within reasonable bounds than to foster the spirit of enterprise which has arisen in consequence.

Altogether 26 inundation canals have been constructed in the district since 1860 for irrigation purposes, which may be divided as follows:—

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
History of Canals.

(a) *Canals under Irrigation Department.*

	Length.	Acres.
1. Station canal	22 miles, irrigates	... }
2. New Sáhiwáh	17 "	... }
3. Old Sáhiwáh	19 "	... }
4. McNabbwáh	14 "	... }

(b) *Canals under District Authority.*

	Length.	Acres.
5. Rániwáh (maintained from Provincial Fund)	23 miles, irrigates	18,000
6. Corbynwáh	20 "	2,800

(c) *Private Canals.*

	Length.	Acres.
7. Píránwála	15 miles, irrigates	2,500
8. Amírchandwála	17 "	2,000
9. Makhdúmánwála	10 "	1,250
10. Thattiwála	2½ "	500
11. Nangiána or Nabba	2 "	350
12. Nathúwála	6 "	858
13. Chullwála, or Jahanwála	19 "	5,023
14. Sultán Mahmúdwála	20 "	3,496
15. Malik Sahibkhánwála	12 "	13,348
16. Kandánwála, or Mughlánwála	13 "	292
17. Malik Sher Muhammadkhánwála	14½ "	1,215
18. Dáimwála	2 "	500
19. Malik Fattéh Khán and Hákímkhánwála	17 "	4,000
20. Mohkamdínwála	2½ "	312
21. Malik Jahánkhánwála	18 "	250
22. Mahútánwála	8 "	500
23. Sarfrázkhánwála	15 "	5,421
24. Meknánwála	19 "	3,539
25. Malik Sahibkhánwála (new cut)	6 "	463
26. Jhamtanwála	3 "	211

The first six of these, which are Government canals, are fully described with their administration in Chapter V.

Colonel Davies thus describes the climate of the district: "The general climatic conditions of the Sháhpur district have little to distinguish them from those of other tracts of country similarly situated with reference to the Himalayas. In India the heat in the plains being practically the same everywhere, the healthiness of the place appears to depend mainly on the quantity of moisture deposited on the surface, combined with the efficiency of the machinery for drainage, that is, the capacity of the soil to absorb or convey away rapidly the water falling on it; the rule apparently being that the less the moisture, and the better the

Rainfall, temperature and climate.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
Rainfall, temperature and climate.

natural drainage, the healthier the place, and *vice versa*. Now the average rainfall here throughout the year being only fifteen inches, and the texture of the soil in most parts of the district sufficiently loose rapidly to absorb water, it should follow, if this rule is a true one, that the district is generally healthy; and such I think it may be pronounced unhesitatingly. The only exceptions are the tracts immediately bordering the rivers, where, in the autumn months, after very heavy floods, fever prevails and commits great ravages. The health of towns I say nothing of, as it is affected by so many causes peculiarly local, and can therefore form no criterion whereby to test the salubrity of the tract or country of which the towns constitute so infinitesimal a part. It will of course be understood that I am speaking exclusively of the plains. It may be added that the average rain-fall having been deduced from observations made exclusively in the plains, no information can be given as to the actual difference in this respect between the hills and plains; but there is little doubt of the fact before noticed, that the balance is largely in favour of the former tract. In the matter of temperature the Salt Range possesses still great advantages, the valleys being certainly not less than ten degrees, and the highest peaks probably 20 degrees, cooler than the plains all the year round; perhaps during the dry weather immediately preceding the rains the difference in temperature is not so great."

Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall

Year.	Tenths of an inch
1862-63	212
1863-64	143
1864-65	150
1865-66	146

registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year, from 1866-67 to 1882-83. The fall at head-quarters for the four preceding years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. IIIA and IIIB. There is no record of temperature at present maintained in Shikhpur, but records of 1868-69 and 1869-70 give a mean temperature in the shade of 80.5° and 80.76° respectively. The highest temperature recorded was 126° in the shade in May 1868-69, the lowest 22° in December of the following year.

Disease.

The prevailing endemic diseases in the district are thus reported on by the Civil Surgeon:—

"Intermittent and, to a less extent, remittent fevers are very prevalent in the autumn months, more especially along the banks of the Jhelum and Chenâb, and in the villages near the foot of the Salt Range. In November and December the fever is often complicated with pneumonia and bronchitis; dysentery and diarrhoea are often common symptoms of the disease. Towards the end of the season, enlargement of the spleen is often prevalent. The rivers overflowing their banks during the rains have probably something to do with the prevalence of fever, for when the rainfall is small it is observed the fever is also less prevalent. Goitre is often met with on the right bank of the Chenâb, more particularly at the town of Midh. The well water seems to have some connection with this disease, for though every one in Midh, where the people drink well water, suffers from goitre to a greater or less degree, the inhabitants of an island in the Chenâb about three miles from Midh, who drink river water only, do not suffer in the least from the disease. In Midh the very dogs are

said to suffer from the disease. Guinea-worm is often met with in the villages at the foot of the Salt Range. This is caused by the *Filaria medinenis*, which must exist in the water or soil there. Stone in the bladder is also common throughout the district."

Tables Nos. XI, XIIA, XII B and XLIV give annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district and for its towns during the last five years; while the birth and death-rates since 1868, so far as available, will be found in Chap. III, for the general population, and in Chapter VI under the heads of the several large towns of the district. Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deafmutes, and lepers as ascertained at the Census of 1881; while Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries since 1877.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Panjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the Province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medlicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published *in extenso* in the Provincial volume of the Gazetteer series, and also as a separate pamphlet.

It may, however, be mentioned that a very interesting petrifying process is going on at Nursingpahar in the hill above Katha. There is something almost like a stalactite cave, formed by the drippings of water from the rocks, which solidify as they descend.

Salt is found throughout the hills which derive their name from this mineral, concealed in the red marl which gives to the range one of its most characteristic features. Experiment has shown that the salt is exceedingly pure, and as the average thickness of the beds is probably not less than 150 feet, the supply would appear to be inexhaustible. During the Sikh times the revenue from the source was realized by means of farms, but owing to general bad management, seldom exceeded six lakhs of rupees a year, the price of the mineral at the mines being then one rupee per maund. Since the introduction of British rule the increase in this branch of revenue has been very rapid; this has partly been due to the price having been gradually raised from two to three rupees per maund, but much more to improved administration, which has rendered smuggling impossible, and which, by the construction of good roads, by the removal of all restrictions, and by ensuring the safety of life and property, has given an impetus to trade such as it never received before. The revenue derived from salt, however, though collected in the Shahpur district, cannot properly be credited to it, as the mineral, though abundant in the Shahpur portion of the range, is worked chiefly in that part of it which lies in the Jhelum district, in the Gazetteer of which district the mines are fully described.

There is only one salt mine worked in this district; it is situated at Warcha. The Warcha mine is a large cave, supported by pillars at irregular intervals. The room worked is twenty feet thick. A portion of the mine was worked by the Sikhs; this portion is now somewhat dangerous owing to only a thin layer of salt having been

Chapter I.
Descriptive.

Geology.

Mineral products.
salt.

Warcha Salt Mine.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Wārcha Salt Mine.

left between the roof and the marl, and to no pillars having been left to support the roof. There are two entrances to the mine, the old Sikh entrance and a drift made in 1869. On the southern side of the mine are two large natural shafts, which throw a certain amount of light into it, and allow of its being thoroughly ventilated. The miners are paid at the rate of Rs. 3-12-0 per 100 maunds for the salt excavated by them.

Forty-four families are employed in the work.

The outturn of salt has been as follows for the past five years:—

							M. mnd.
1878-79	129,133
1879-80	102,012
1880-81	109,619
1881-82	119,641
1882-83	167,350

An inspector has charge of the mine at Wārcha, and has also charge of the preventive establishment of the Wārcha section, and an assistant inspector is stationed at Katha. There are forty guard posts, at which are stationed 169 men. This includes the establishment at the two head-quarters. The annual cost of the mine and guarding establishment amounts to Rs. 21,016 per annum.

Saltpetre.

Saltpetre is found native mixed with the earth throughout the bār. It is met with in the greatest quantities in the earth of the numerous mounds called *akhis* scattered over the district, marking the sites of what probably were once thriving towns and villages. The salt is obtained by lixiviation of this earth. Water having been passed through it, the solution is afterwards boiled in large iron pans, and is then allowed to cool and crystallize. The average produce of a pan is thirty *sers*, and as the manufacture of saltpetre is only carried on during the seven dry months, the annual outturn of each cauldron may be roughly set down as one hundred and fifty maunds. The Crimean war appears to have given a great impulse to the trade in this salt, for the number of licenses to work pans began rapidly to increase from 1855, when they were 649, till they amounted, in 1858, to no less than 4,856, representing an annual production of 728,400 maunds, or 26,014 tons, the selling price being at this period four rupees per maund. From that time the trade has been steadily declining, so that in 1866 only 185 licenses were taken out, and the salt could be had for a little more than one rupee per maund.

Sajji.

Sajji, or impure carbonato of soda, is produced by incineration of the *Salsola griffithsii*, one of the many species of *ldna* plant, which is found in great quantities in the bār south and east of the road leading from Lahore to the Frontier. The mode of obtaining the crude soda is almost identical with that adopted by the Spaniards in the manufacture of the same substance, called by them *barilla*. Circular pits, five or six feet in diameter, and about two feet deep, are dug at convenient distances, according to the requirements of the crops, and into these half-dried sheaves of the plant are thrown and set on fire, fresh sheaves being constantly added until the pit is nearly filled with ashes in a state of semi-fusion. The operation lasts about twenty-four hours, and the quantity burned during this

time is about two hundred bundles, each of about half a maund. The contents of the pit are then well stirred and allowed to cool, a little dry earth being scattered over the surface to prevent evaporation. The pits are opened on the fifth or sixth day, when the *sajji* is found concreted together into a hard cellular mass. The selling price of *sajji* is now one rupee two annas a maund; during the Sikh time the price varied from two to three maunds for the rupee. *Sajji* is exported from this district chiefly to the north and east, towards Ráwalpindi, Siálkot, and Kashmír. It is extensively used in the manufacture of soap, paper, and glass, and as a substitute for soap by the poorer classes; it is also largely employed in the process of bleaching; lastly native practitioners use it as a medicine. The demand for *sajji* has been steadily rising, and the sums realized from farming the monopoly of its manufacturing increased in a few years prior to 1866 from thirteen hundred to upwards of eight thousand rupees.

Lignite is found in small quantities in the Salt Range. It was tried on the Panjáb Railway, and answered fairly well, but the price at Lahore was too high, and the quantity found too small for it to be practically useful. The cost of coal on the spot is Rs. 5 per 100 maunds.

Iron and lead are known to exist in the Salt Range within the boundaries of the district; but not in sufficient quantity to render their working remunerative. Gypsum and mica are also found in considerable quantities in the same hills.

Tigers, leopards, and wolves are found in the Salt Range; the first rarely, the last two commonly. Snakes are common in all parts of the district. In the five years ending 1882 rewards amounting to Rs. 3,285 were paid for the destruction of 3 tigers, 11 leopards, 742 wolves, and 2,247 snakes.

The jungle tracts of the *bár* and the rugged slopes of the Salt Range afford cover for game of different classes. In the *bár* and flat country generally are found quail, partridges, sandgrouse, hare, *talár* or bustard, antelope, wild duck, *kunj* (or *kulan*), and wild geese. In the hilly tract the *urid* (or wild sheep) and *chikor* (hill partridge) are found. *Kulan*, wild geese, and duck are most abundant in the winter months, quails in spring. The lakes of the Salt Range are favourite abodes of the scarlet flamingo. The capture of the *talár* is a favourite sport amongst natives. They are taken in large numbers by being driven along quietly with the aid of a bullock, till they reach a net which has been previously placed vertically in front of them; on reaching it they become confused and frightened and are readily caught.

The flora of the Salt Range will be found fully discussed in a note furnished by the Forest Department inserted in Chapter IV, Section A.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
Sajji.

Lignite.

Iron, lead, and
gypsum.

Wild animals.
Sport.

Flora.-

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Chapter II.

History and Leading Families.

Former prosperity.

Prior to the fall of the Mughal dynasty but little is known of the history of this part of the country. One thing however is certain, that at some time anterior to the period of which records are extant, the face of the country presented a very different appearance to that which it now bears. The *bar* tract between the Chenab and the Jhelum, now jungle inhabited only by half-savage pastoral tribes, is thickly studded with mounds of earth covered by loose bricks and fragments of pottery, the sites of ancient towns and villages. In all, there are no less than 270 of these mounds in the *bar*. There can be little doubt that the desertion of these old sites is due to a gradual sub-sidence of the water level. There are spots where the brickwork of old wells still existing, does not extend more than 25 feet in depth; while now, in the same place, water cannot be obtained within 60 feet of the surface, and even when found is in most cases so brackish as to be unfit for the use of man or beast. When this change took place it is at present impossible to say. It is well known that at the time of the Greek invasions the whole country was richly cultivated. One of Alexander's historians speaks of it as "teeming with population." Local tradition points to the time of Akbar as the period of greatest prosperity, and a similar tradition exists regarding a similar state of things in the neighbouring district of Gújranwala. The appearance of the mounds themselves on the other hand would point to a more remote period. One of the more immediate and recent causes of the depression of the water level, may be the changes which are known to have taken place in the course of the rivers Jhelum and Chenab, both having flowed, speaking with reference to this Doab, much further inland than they now do; but this would only help to explain the phenomenon in its relation to this district, whereas the same has been observed in many other parts of the Panjab. Such has been the effect of this change upon the population, that at the time of annexation the *bar* and *thal* country was found peopled only by a few tribes purely pastoral in their habits, subsisting entirely upon the produce of their flocks and herds, having no fixed abodes, but moving from place to place, wherever a good supply of grass was to be found. It is only of late years that they may be seen gradually settling down into permanent habitations, and availing themselves of the opportunities now and then offered by the seasons, of adding to their other resources by cultivating the patches of good soil. A marked change has lately taken place in this respect, and with the growth of settled habits an attachment to the soil is being rapidly developed.

Antiquities.

The principal antiquities of the district are shown on p. 16 in a tabular form. They have been described by General Cunningham in his Archæological Survey Reports, V, 79 to 85, and XIV, 33 to 41

and in his Ancient Geography, pages 155 to 159. Of them by far the most interesting are the ruins at Amb, of what was probably a Buddhist temple, enclosed within a fort built on the summit of a hill, at the foot of which a clear stream of water issues from a passage lined with masonry, constructed evidently by the same hands which raised the imposing structure above. The ruins of a massive masonry dam at the entrance of the Katha Pass, evidently built to economize and distribute the waters of this torrent, are suggestive of what might be done again with advantage. This and two large *bdolis* at Bola and Wán Kaila are attributed to Sher Sháh, and the tradition is not improbably true, as he is known to have passed a great part of his brief reign in the Punjab.

The political history of the district may conveniently be divided into *three periods*. The first, that which preceded the downfall of the Mughal Empire; the second, the brief space occupied by the successive inroads of the Afgháns, followed by the rapid acquisition of power by the Sikhs; and the last, the period during which, by a happy admixture of boldness and artifice, the young leader of the Sukar Chakin *misl* succeeded in making himself master of the whole of the Punjab, from the banks of the Sutlej to the mountains of Suleinán.

The first may be dismissed with a few words. A tract of country not naturally rich, and far removed from the high road between Hindustán and the countries beyond its northern frontier, would not be the scene of events of sufficient magnitude to leave a lasting impress on the minds of the people, and hence tradition has preserved little that refers to so remote a period. All that is known is, that during the latter years of Muhammad Sháh's reign the affairs of Bhera, and the surrounding country as far south as Shahpur, were administered by Rájá Salámat Rai, a Khatri of the Anand clan;* that Khusháb and its dependencies were under the management of Nawáb Ahmándyár Khán; that the tracts lying to the south of the district, and along the Chenáb, formed part of the territory delegated to the charge of Máharája Kaurn Mal, then governor of Multán; and that the *thal* formed part of the *jágír* of the descendants of the Biloch founders of the two Deras. To this period succeeded one of anarchy. The weakness of the Moghal government had invited attack from without, and fostered insurrection within: wave after wave of invasion for nearly thirty years poured down over the defenceless country, and in the intervals the Sikhs made good every opportunity afforded them by the weakness of the Government, to enrich themselves at the expense of their more peaceable neighbours. The remote position of this tract of country did not altogether save it from the calamities incident on such a state of things. In the year 1757 a force under Núr-ud-dín, Bamizai, deputed by Ahmad Sháh to assist his son Timúr in repelling the Mahrattas, crossing the river Jhelum at Khusháb, marched up the left bank of the river. The proceedings of this man may be taken as a type of the excesses committed by the invading armies; and some idea will be formed

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families
Antiquities.

Political history
divisible into three
periods.

First or
Mughal period.

Second or Afghan
period. Rise of the
Sikhs.

* The descendants of this man still reside in Bhera, and plume themselves on the greatness of their ancestor.

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families.

Antiquities.

Name of Locality.	Name of object of antiquarian interest.	Description of the same.
Khuram	Jahaz Masjid	A fine old mosque of the time of Sher Shah extempore with the fagging of his city, A. D. 947. The mosque has lately been restored.
Vijhi, (Taluk Blera)	Sahib Pind near Minni.	One of the most conspicuous of the numerous mounds which abound in every direction throughout the district and tell of a once high state of prosperity. (See any one existing map of the tract of the Gher, or Survey of India's map of Lahore, 1855, for the names of hundreds of large cities and villages bearing with population see Straube Lib. XX, Chapter 1, Section 33.)
Taluk Narana	Tomb of Shah Muhamad Alam.	The ruins show that once a very large town existed here. In the jangla of the "Pular Dohra Dohra" given in the "Ain-i-Akbari" the Khalif of Hazara is said to have had a brick fort, not to have paid a revenue of 4,00,000 dimes or Rs. 1,77,250. Among the ruins here, is the tomb of Muhamad Alam. This place has obtained celebrity as the scene of a romance which rivals the story of "Laila and Majnun" in extravagance. Not a peasant in the province but knows the tale of "Hajra aur Ilm."
Haddi	A well-made mud and tank.	These works are all attributed to Sher Shah. The former is one of several such works called in the language of the country "Mau." The story goes, that the Emperor during a royal progress through the Punjab, caused one of these reservoirs wells to be sunk at every stage. The tank covers about an acre of land—it is now however completely choked up; its name for Muhamad Alam's well refers to the pillars standing, the remains of which are still visible.
Gurjali	Bidhi	The same as the Mau at Haddi and said to have been constructed at the same period. The two villages of Gurjali and Utra, separated from each other by about a quarter of a mile only, are commonly called Warkha from this well.
Katha gorge	Satghara	The remains of a mighty dam for distributing the waters of the Vahi or Katha torrent. The work is attributed to Sher Shah; some refer its construction to a more remote period.
Ditto	Nar Singh, Phor	A very ancient Hindu shrine, dating according to their histories from one of Vishnu's Avatars when he descended in the form of a lion "Deo Singh." Pilgrimages are made to it all the year round, and mela held on certain fixed dates. Naderi, Ghulab Singh built a temple here some fifty years ago.
Amb	Hinda rai	An impregnable fort, with every appearance of being of Mughal construction. Behind the ramparts are to be seen what are evidently the remains of an old fort. Tradition places the date of its erection at five hundred years prior to the Muhammadan era, but it is probably older.
Shah Yusuf	Khengi of Shah Yusuf.	A mosque, said to have been erected A. D. 951, or 952 years ago, by a holy man of that name, a stranger from the west, to whom the shanty of the inhabitants of Bhangi was assigned, still kept land for his support. His descendants still hold the land, and reside on the spot. The building, though of elegant form is of very moderate dimensions, and is encircled outside with enclosure walls.
Panj Pir	Khengah, Naugay—a giant's tomb.	The graves here are of extraordinary dimensions, nine yards long, as the name imports. They are built on the ruined site of what must have been a large city, to which there must have been a large immigration less than five thousand years. The Hindu story is, that this is one of the resting places of the called Pandavas, and hence call it Panj Pandi, but the Muhammadans, according to their custom, while reverencing the site as holy, have changed the title to Panj Pir to make it harmonious with their language and religion.
Chak Banu	Chak Banu	This, like the last, is the remains of a once flourishing town, but probably of more moderate size. It was founded by a once powerful tribe named Tella, of which a few impoverished members still reside on the spot. The town was burned and raised with the ground by Nur-ud-din Balaal, one of Ahmad Shah's generals.

of the amount of misery caused by these invasions. Nur-ud-din, finding that the inhabitants would not pay the large ransoms demanded of them, successively plundered and laid waste with fire and

sword three of the largest towns of the district. Two of these, Bhera and Miāni, rose again on their ruins, without however completely recovering the shock they had sustained ; but of the third, Chal Sānū, the foundations alone are to be seen.

About this time Nawāb Ahmadāyār Khān died, and Khushāb was added to the territory under the charge of Rāja Salāmat Rāi. But the latter had not held it many years before he was treacherously put to death by Abbás Khān, Khattāk, who held possession of the Salt Range and Pind Dādān Khān, on the part of Ahmad Shāh. Abbás Khān then seized Bhera ; but his attempt to make himself master of the surrounding country was foiled by the determination shown by the widow of the murdered governor, who shut herself up in the fort of Chāwā, while her nephew, following her example, held out in his stronghold of Fātēhgarh, close to Bhera itself. These events occurred in 1760 ; and before Abbás Khān had time to subdue his opponents, he was himself thrown into prison as a revenue defaulter, when the former status was restored, Fātēh Singh obtaining possession of the tract previously held by his uncle, and Muhammād Nawāz Khān succeeding his father in the government of the country north of the Jhelum.

After the final success of the Sikh commonwealth against Ahmad Shāh in 1767, the whole of the Salt Range was overrun and appropriated by Chhattar Singh of the Sukar-Chinkān *misl*, while the Bhangis taking possession of the tract of country between those hills and the Chenāb, as far nearly as Sāhiwāl, parcelled it out among themselves after their usual fashion. The division of the portion comprised within this district was as follows : the *zails* of Mīdh and Mūsa chūhn, as dependencies of Kādirābād, were retained as their own share by Ganda Singh and Jhanda Singh, the leaders of the *misl*. Miāni was assigned to Tarāh Singh, and Bhera with Ahmedābād fell to the lot of Mān Singh, from whom they passed in 1769 to Dhanna Singh and Charat Singh, of the same confederacy.

The Muhammādan chieftains of Sāhiwāl, Mitha Tiwānā and Khushāb had some time previously assumed independence, and though hard pressed, were able generally to resist the encroachments of their new neighbours, the Sikhs. South of the Jhelum, however, the Bhangis had succeeded in wresting from Muhammād Khān of Sāhiwāl the greater part of his possessions ; but after the chief's death, his son Fātēh Khān drove out the Sikhs, and by degrees established his authority over nearly the whole of the tract afterwards included in the Shahpur *misl*. But these changes brought no repose : might was the only test of right ; and, in the absence of any general controlling authority, the country became a prey to the ambition of rival chiefs struggling for supremacy. It would be tedious and profitless to record all this petty warfare. Only those occurrences need be mentioned from which permanent changes of possession resulted.

Across the river Jhelum, the Tiwānas under Mallik Sher Khān made themselves masters of Nūrpur and the surrounding country, and after the death of Gūl Jemānn of Wārcha, succeeded in establishing a partial authority over the Awāns along the base of the Salt Range. They also wrested Shekhwāl and several other

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villages on the right bank of the Jhelum from the Beloch Chief of Sáhiwál. But the Mallik's attempt to reduce Khusháb was unsuccessful, for although Lál Khán was killed in the defence of the town, the Tiwáns were driven off, and Jásir Khán, the deceased chieftain's son and successor, thenceforth remained in possession, until Ranjit Singh absorbed the *talukás* into the rest of his dominions.

South of the Jhelum, as described above, the Bhangis had possessed themselves of the whole Doáb east of Sháhpur; while to the west of that place as far as Nihang the country owned the authority of the Chief of Sáhiwál. But in Sháhpur itself, a colony of Sayads, under Ghulám Sháh, established a semi-independent authority,* and this they were allowed to retain unmolested by their more powerful neighbours, owing doubtless to the reverence in which they were held as the descendants of a renowned saint. The remainder of the Doáb, to the junction of the two rivers, was held by the Síál Chiefs of Jhang, Izat Baksh Rehán, a powerful *zamindár* of those parts, being their Deputy in Kálowál. Such was the status of possession when the Sukar-Chakia confederacy under Mahá Singh began to acquire the ascendancy, and the power of the Bhangis to decline. The subsequent history of the district consists of a series of encroachments on the part of Mahá Singh and his renowned son Ranjit Singh, until the whole country was incorporated with the dominions of the latter.

Rise of Ranjit
Singh.

By the deaths of Sirdárs Jhanda Singh and Ganda Singh, the Bhangi confederacy was left without a head; and Mahá Singh, having joined his forces to those of the Kauhia *míl*, found no difficulty in making himself master of Kádirábád. By this event, which occurred in 1781, the *talukás* of Mídh and Músa fell into his hands, and two years after, he succeeded in taking Míáni and its dependencies from Tárn Singh, Bhangi. For some time now there was a pause in the tide of conquest. Ten years after the event last recorded, Mahá Singh died, leaving his son Ranjit Singh, a boy of thirteen years; and it was long before the latter had sufficiently established his authority round Lahore, to allow him to think of making conquests so far from the capital. But the process of annexation though slow was sure, and the wily young chief was never in want of a pretext for adding to his possessions. Bheri was coveted, and the reason assigned for interference in its affairs, was the tyranny of Jodh Singh, who had succeeded to the family conquests on the death of his father Dhanna Singh; with this plausible excuse, Ranjit Singh marched from Míáni in 1803, and having obtained possession of the fort by means of a stratagem, the person of Jodh Singh was seuered, and the young Maháraja entered unopposed into possession of the country lying on both sides of the river as far as Jhaurián.

Conquest of Sáhiwál
and Khusháb.

The next move was against the Bihóch Chiefs of Sáhiwál and Khusháb. In 1804 Ranjit Singh had placed the former under contribution, and the tribute, which at first was almost nominal, was afterwards raised to twelve thousand rupees a year. The increased demand was not met with promptitude, and this furnished the Máharája with the

* The descendants of Ghulám Sháh and his father Nathú Sháh still hold the greater part of the land in Sháhpur and its neighbourhood.

pretext he was in search of. Accordingly, in 1809, a force was organized, and Ranjit Singh marched for Sáhiwál. Having taking up a position at Méngewál, one march from that place, he sent Síndhí Áttar Singh to bring the Biloeh Chief to his presence. But Fateh Khán, taught by experience, suspected treachery, and excused himself from obeying the call. On receiving, however, the Sírdár's solemn assurance that no harm should befall the boy, he sent his son Langor Khán with a handsome offering to the camp of the Máharaja. To divert suspicion, Ranjit Singh received the boy very graciously, and having dismissed him with rich presents and the assurance of his continued friendship for his father, he retraced his steps and marched against Jósir Khán. Fateh Khán, falling into the trap laid for him, dismissed his forces to their homes, and before he had time to make fresh preparations for resistance, Ranjit Singh, flushed with his success before Khusháb, of which place he had made himself master after a siege of only eight days, suddenly appeared before Sáhiwál and took the place by a coup-de-main. The chief was himself carried off a prisoner to Lahore, and the now conquered territory given in *jágir* to the heir-apparent, Kharak Singh. Thus fell Khusháb and Sáhiwál; and at the same time the smaller possessions of the Sháhpur Seals and of Budh Singh, Bhangi, around Bakkhar, were added to the rapidly increasing territory under the sway of the Máharaja. In the year following, the *talukas* of Faruka and Kálowál fell into his hands, together with the remainder of the country which had been subject to the authority of the Siáí Chiefs of Jhang.

There remained now only the possessions of the Malliks of Mitha Tiwána, and these, too, soon shared the common fate. A well equipped force was despatched against them under Mír Diwán Chand in 1816. The Tiwána Mallik retired to Núrpur, in the heart of the *thál*, thinking that the scarcity of water and supplies might prevent the Sikh army from effecting its object. But all obstacles disappeared before the energy of the Sikh commander, who sank wells as he advanced, so that after a time the Tiwánas, finding resistance hopeless, abandoned the place and took refuge with their old enemy, the Nawáb of Dera Ismáil Khán, who had not the generosity however to forget their former rivalry in pity for the fallen fortunes of the Tiwána Chiefs, but plundered them and turned them out. After this, for nearly two years, Mallik Khán Muhammed and his sons wandered from place to place, subsisting on the charity of their neighbours; but finding this kind of life insupportable, they determined on making an attempt to recover their former possessions. An appeal made to their fellow clansmen was heartily responded to, and, at the head of this irregular force, they appeared suddenly before the walls of their native town. The Sikh garrison, completely taken by surprise, abandoned the place and fled, and the Malliks were once more masters of land of the their ancestors. Their triumph was however but short-lived. In the early part of 1818, the ousted governor returned with a strong force, and the Malliks were a second time compelled to fly. The possessions of the Tiwána Chiefs were then given in *jágir* to the famous Harri Singh, Nalán, and were held by him till his death at Peshawar on the 30th April, 1837.

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Conquest of the
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Chapter II. The attempt made by Khán Muhammad served to convince Ranjít Singh that it would be bad policy to drive the Tiwáns to desperation; when therefore the Mallik repaired to Lahore to tender his submission he was well received, and a liberal provision made for the support of the family. Villages on the left banks of the Jhelum, yielding ten thousand rupees a year, were assigned in *jágir*, and several of the chief's relations and dependents were taken into the service of the State. Matters remained in this state, the elders living quietly on their *jágir*, while the younger members of the family with their contingents served with the army whenever called on to do so, till the death of Harri Singh before Jamrud. In the interim the old Malik Khán Muhammad, and his elder son Ahmadýár Khán had died, and Mallik Khudayár Khán, the younger son, with his nephew Kadir Daksh, were thus left as the representatives of the family. The former had had the good fortune, some time before, to place Rája Guláb Singh under a deep obligation, which resulted in a close friendship between them, and was the means of introducing the Malik at court, where, befriended by the Rája and the latter's brother, the prime minister, Khudayár Khán, and his son, the well known Fateh Khán, soon rose to positions of great favour.

Fateh Khán was thus favourably situated when the news of the death of Harri Singh reached Lahore. He lost no time in obtaining from his patron, in his own name, the farm of the ancestral *talukas* of Mitha Tiwána; and his father dying about the same time, he was left the acknowledged head of the tribe. From this time till the unprovoked aggressions of the Sikh army led to the first Sikh war, Fateh Khán took a prominent part in the politics of the country, and his love of intrigue found ample scope in the confusion into which the affairs of the State were thrown after the deaths, in rapid succession, of Ranjít Singh, his son and grandson. For some time Fateh Khán remained faithful to the side of his patron Rája Dhián Singh, and reaped the reward of his attachment in ever increasing grants of territory in farm. But ere long the prime minister was assassinated, and suspicion of complicity in the deed having fallen on the Malik, he retired to Bannu to escape the vengeance of Rája Híra Singh, the son of the murdered man. Soon after, emerging from his retreat, the restless Malik created a diversion in favour of Sardár Jawáhar Singh, to whose party he had now attached himself, by raising an insurrection in his native country and making himself master of Mitha Tiwána; but the expedition failed, and Fateh Khán, being ejected from the town by a Sikh force under Sardár Mangal Singh, was forced to take refuge in Bahawalpur, where he remained, till the death of Híra Singh, in 1844, allowed him to come forth from his asylum.

The rest of the Malik's story is soon told. During Jawáhar Singh's brief tenure of power, Fateh Khán enjoyed unbounded authority, the services of so unscrupulous a partisan being, in the existing state of affairs, beyond price. But bad times were coming for the Mallik. His patron was put to death by the army, and his enemies, headed by Rájas Teja Singh and Dína Náth, succeeded to power, and were not slow in gratifying their malice. He was called on to give an account of the revenues of the large tracts of country of which he had held the management, and was brought in a defaulter

to the extent of several lakhs of rupees. Unable to meet this heavy demand, he was thrown into prison, where he remained till Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, thinking he would be of use on the frontier, obtained his liberation and ultimately, when the Multán rebellion broke out, sent him to relieve Lieutenant Taylor in the charge of Bannu. The Sikh troops soon after broke out into open mutiny, and besieged Fateh Khán with his Muhammadan levies in the fort. The Malik held out bravely, till the supply of water failed, when, seeing that the defence could be no longer protracted, he came out and was shot down while boldly challenging the best man of the Sikhs to meet him in single combat. Such was the fitting end to the career of a man who had in cold blood taken the lives of perhaps more of his fellow creatures than any other of his time.

When this occurred, Malik Fateh Sher Khán, the son of Fateh Khán, and Malik Sher Muhammad Khán, the son of the deceased Malik's first cousin Kidir Baksh, were serving under Major Edwardes' orders before Multán. Both did good service; the former remaining with Major Edwardes, while the latter was detached to follow on the tracks of the Bannu force, then in full march to join Sher Singh, and to endeavour to restore order in his native district. In the execution of this commission, Sher Muhammad Khán drove out the Sikh garrisons, and made himself master in rapid succession of the principal towns and strongholds in this part of the country beginning with Mitha Tiwāna and ending with Sáhiwál; and added to his other services, by collecting a portion of the revenue and remitting it to Major Taylor, who was then employed in restoring order along the frontier. Nor must the services of Malik Sáhib Khán, the uncle of Sher Muhammad Khán, and a gallant member of this family, be forgotten. He too served with Major Edwardes' Irregulars, and was afterwards employed with Sardár Langar Khán of Sáhiwál and others, in putting to flight the force headed by the rebel Bhai Maharaj Singh, and in reducing Chiniot. In short, this family has always shown itself actively loyal in seasons of disturbance, and it is only in times of peace, when the naturally jealous dispositions of its members have full play, that their internal feuds render them a source of annoyance to all around them.

After the fall of Multán and the overthrow of the Sikhs at Gujrát, the Tiwāna Malliks had time to look about them. They knew that they were to be rewarded, but the question was, who was to receive the lion's share as the head of the tribe? Sher Muhammad Khán claimed the turban, as the descendant of the elder branch, while Fateh Sher Khán rested his title on the acknowledged pre-eminence of his father, Fateh Khán. The dispute was eventually settled through the mediation of friends. It was decided that in point of rank they should be on an equality one with the other, and that in all the material benefits that might accrue to them as representatives of the tribe, both should share alike, and this agreement has since been acted on.

The Tiwāna Malliks have been well rewarded. Soon after annexation they preferred a claim to a fourth of the revenues of

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the Nûrpur and Mitha Tiwâna *talukas*, and in consideration of their loyalty and good services, the claim was admitted, and villages yielding Rs. 6,000 a year were granted in *jâgîr* to each, to be held by them and their heirs in perpetuity. In addition to these grants, life pensions of Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 3,240 were conferred respectively on Malik Fatch Sher Khân and Sher Muhammad Khân; a pension of Rs. 450 a year was, at the same time, granted to Mallik Sâhib Khân. Lastly for their services during the mutinies, the Malliks obtained the following rewards: Malliks Fatch Sher Khân, and Shâhib Khân life *jâgîrs* of twelve hundred rupees each, and Mallik Sher Muhammad Khân one of six hundred rupees. To these substantial gifts was annexed the much coveted and highly prized title of Khân Bahâdur.

History of the Sâhi-
wal Chiefs.

It is now time to return to Sardâr Fatch Khân of Sâhiwâl, who was left a prisoner at Lahore. In accordance with his usual custom, Ranjît Singh after a while released his prisoner, giving him a *jâgîr* first in Jhang and then in Ahmadâbâd, near Pind Dâdân Khân, stipulating, however, that Fatch Khân was to remain at Court. But, after a life of independence, the Biloch chief was ill fitted to play the courtier, his proud spirit chafed at the confinement, and, like the Tiwâna Malik, he was tempted to strike a blow for independence. He applied to the Nawâb of Mankera for assistance. The request was favourably entertained, and the two chiefs, with their combined forces, actually started to attempt the recovery of Sâhiwâl. But fear of the consequences to himself of failure, overcame the Nawâb's desire to assist his fellow clansman, and abandoning Fatch Khân to his fate, he precipitately retreated to his stronghold of Mankera. Fatch Khân, seeing that he had committed himself beyond power of recall, and that now he had nothing to hope for from Ranjît Singh, fled to Multân and soon after took refuge in Bahâwalpur, where he died in 1819.

Langar Khân, the son of the deceased Chief, a lad of fourteen years of age, was left a pensioner on the bounty of the Nawâb, and remained at Bahâwalpur till 1822, when Ranjît Singh hearing, while on a visit at Multân, that Fatch Khân was dead, sent for Langar Khân, and gave him a *jâgîr* of two thousand rupees a year with a personal allowance of three rupees a day. The *jâgîr* was afterwards (in 1838) increased to three thousand rupees, and the allowance to five rupees a day. Langar Khân with his men formed part of the Sikh contingent which, under Captain (afterwards Sir H.) Lawrence, accompanied General McCaskill's division in Pollock's advance on Kâbul. Langar Khân also served with distinction under Major Edwardes' orders during the Multân rebellion. After annexation, as a reward for these services, the family *jâgîr*, valued at three thousand rupees a year, was released in perpetuity, and a life pension of twelve hundred rupees granted to Langar Khân. This Chief died in 1853, and was followed to his grave in 1862 by the eldest of his three sons Muhammad Hâjât Khân. The second son Mobârik Khân, is now the representative of the family.

The Lâmbha family.

There is yet one set of circumstances to be referred to, and then the history of the principal families of this part of the country may be said to be complete. It will be remembered that on Ahmad Shah's

final retirement, the Súkar Chakins, under the grandfather of Ranjit Singh, possessed themselves of the greater part of the Salt Range. The status in this respect remained undisturbed till 1827, when the members of this confederacy, among whom the conquered tract had been originally parcelled out, having fallen out among themselves, Ranjit Singh resumed their shares and divided them among his favourites; the Sún *talúka* falling to the share of Hari Singh, by whom it was held till his death in 1837. On the occurrence of this event, it was given by the Máharája to his old friend and playfellow, and afterwards one of the most successful of his generals, Sirdar Gurmukh Singh, Lámbha, and it was one of the few gifts of which this brave old man had not been despoiled by the envy and hatred of the Jammú family when we took the country. The majority of the villages constituting the *talúka* were then resumed, but the estate of Nowshera, worth rather more than four thousand rupees a year, was released in perpetuity. Sardar Gurmukh Singh died in 1853, and was succeeded by his son, Attar Singh, the present representative of the family, who resides in the Gujrát district, where he holds other *jágírs*.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report. This station is the head-quarters of the customs line in connection with the Salt Range. Mr. Wright, the Collector of Customs, brought to the assistance of Mr. Ouseley, Deputy Commissioner, a very valuable reinforcement in the shape of 100 of the men of the preventive service, who, being all armed and natives of the Punjab or else Patháns, created a valuable counterpoise to the mutinous company of the 46th Native Infantry, which formed the treasury guard. The transit of the 39th Native Infantry through the district on their way from Jhelum to Dera Ismail Khán caused a panic amongst the people of Sháhpur. Strange rumours began to circulate about these men, valuables were buried, people became unsettled, and the commanding officer of the regiment feared to come through Sháhpur while the company of the 46th was there, expressing a hope that Mr. Ouseley had not much treasure under his care. On the evening of the 22nd May a strong guard of police marched into the treasury with three European officers of the station, and took possession of all the surplus money, amounting to Rs. 2,50,000. Part of this was forthwith sent towards Jhelum and part towards Dera Ismail Khán. Under orders which were subsequently received the Jhelum consignment was recalled; but the move which took it in the first instance from the 46th was a most ably planned one, as the Hindustáni troops were at the same time turned out of the treasury fort, which was garrisoned by the police battalion, fortified and provisioned, and a well sunk to supply drinking water.

At one time the villages of the *hár* were said to be in an unquiet state. Mr. Ouseley posted ten police horse on the confines of the tract of land so called, and, as no mutiny of the sepoys took place in the district, the wild tribes remained peaceful even when their brethren in the Multán Division broke out. The mutiny of a portion of the 9th Irregular Cavalry affected this country so far as that it called out the Deputy Commissioner, two or three of the customs officers, and a number of the police. The mutineers were pursued

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The Mutiny

Chapter II. by the police ; the soldiery and district officers of five or six districts were on their trail and gave them no rest until Captain Hoekin came up with them in the Jhang district and cut them up. A Hindu-tānī clerk in the customs office was detected in an attempt to unite Hindus and Muhammadans against our Government. He was apprehended, convicted and punished.

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A force of local levies was raised, thus affording vent to the warlike spirit of the martial tribes of the district who chafed at inaction, and probably would have frittered us had not a legitimate object been given them on which to spend their strength. Of these levies upwards of 1,000 horse were raised from among the Tiwāns alone ; and Mr. Ouseley describes his relief at their departure as great.

Status at annexation.

Probably there is no district in the Punjab, the territorial limits and constitution of which have undergone so many changes as that of Shāhpur. At annexation, the whole of the Chaj Doāb, from the boundary of the Jāman territory to the junction of the rivers Jhelum and Chenāb, was placed under the charge of Mr. E. C. Bayley, and administered by him as one district.

First formation of
the district.

But the charge was found too extensive. Accordingly, in June of the same year (1849), this tract of country was divided and formed into the two districts of Gujrāt and Shāhpur; the latter comprising the four kārdāships of Miāni, Bhera, Sāhiwāl and Kādirpur, to which were added the three lowest zailas of the kārdāship of Kādirābād, viz., Mīth, Ahmadnagar and Kalowal on the Chenāb. As time wore on, however, and our acquaintance with the newly conquered country became closer, defects were discovered in the first apportionments of territory into circles of administration, and in respect to Shāhpur and the surrounding districts speedily led to changes. The first took place in 1851, when the whole *talukh* of Kādirpur was transferred to Jhang, on the ground that the *talukas* of which it was composed had always been subordinate to that place, that it was more conveniently situated with respect to the head-quarters of that district, and that the inhabitants were chiefly Sials, closely connected with others of the same tribe.

The Kādirpur *talukh*
transferred to Jhang

Khushāb and Faruka
are received.

Khushāb and Faruka in Jhang. For somewhat similar reasons, the *talukha* of Khushāb was made over to Shāhpur from Leiah, from the commencement of the financial year 1853-54, and the following year saw the transfer back to this district of the Faruka *ilāqā*.

Constitution of the
district in 1853-54.

The district now consisted of the three *talukhs* of Bhera, Sāhiwāl, and Kalowal, of which all but the narrow strip made up of the trans-Jhelum *parganahs* of Khushāb, Girot and Jaura, attached to the Sāhiwāl *talukh*, were situated between that river and the Chenāb. Presently, however, further additions were made to the district. Early in the year 1857, as the Chief Commissioner was marching across the Sindh-Sāgar Doāb, the leading men of Mitha Tiwān came to him in a body praying that the *talukha* might be transferred to Shāhpur; urging as their reason for desiring the change the great distance from the head-quarters of their own district (Leiah), and the comparative proximity of Shāhpur. The application was favourably entertained, and the transfer took place from the commencement of that financial year. A still more important revision,

Mitha Tiwān re-
ceived from Leiah.

of territorial jurisdictions was made during this year. A difficulty had always been experienced in providing for the effectual administration of that portion of the Sindh Ságár Doáb which lay within a radius of fifty miles from Kálábágh. Circumstances originally led to the selection of Ráwálpindi, Jhelum, and Leiah as sites for stations, and between these places the intervening territory was parcelled out in 1848 as best it might be; but soon it became apparent that they were far too remotely situated to allow of the exercise from them of an efficient control over this tract; and a proposition to create a fourth district having been negatived on the score of expense, the result, as regards this district, was the transfer to it from Jhelum of the following *talúqas* and villages:—

<i>In the Salt Range.</i>	The whole of Táliqa Sín	...	19 villages.
	Part " of "	Khabbakki	6 "
	Part " of "	Núrpur Sehti	4 "
<i>North of ditto.</i>	The whole of "	Jabbí	8 "
	Part " of "	Myál	18 "
<i>South of ditto.</i>	The whole of "	Pakkhar	4 "
	Part " of "	Katha	5 "
		Ahmádábád	6 "

In all sixty-five villages, paying a revenue of nearly a lac of rupees.

These extensive additions to the area of the district trans-Jhelum, having rendered the creation of a fourth *tahsíl* on that side of the river absolutely necessary, the recently transferred tracts were formed into a new fiscal division, which received the name of the Jábá *tahsíl* from the small village of that name in the Salt Range, where the head-quarters were established. From this time the limits of the district remained unaltered till the year 1861, when the revision of establishments led to the absorption of the Kalowál *tahsíl*, and the distribution of its villages between the Bhera and Chiniot *tahsíls*; the latter a sub-collectorate of the Jhang district. The last and most important changes were carried out in 1862, when the *talúqa* of Núrpur, in the *thal*, was received from Bannu, the Pakkhar *talúqa*, extending from Sakesar to Nikki, was cut off and attached to the Miánwálí *tahsíl* of that district, and the remainder of the Jábá *tahsíl* lying north of the Salt Range was transferred to Jhelum. These interchanges of territory between Sháhpur and the surrounding districts necessitated a complete remodelling of the interior fiscal divisions, which was effected by forming the whole of the country still attached to the district trans-Jhelum into one *tahsíl*, the head-quarters being moved to Khusháb; and by the transfer from the Bhera to the Sáhiwál *tahsíl* of an equivalent for the villages which had been added to the former on the breaking up of the Kalowál *tahsíl*, as described above; at the same time, as Sáhiwál was now no longer central, the head-quarters of that *tahsíl* were removed to the *sadr* station.

In 1877-78 the following villages were transferred from the Sháhpur to the Gujranwálá district:—

1. Thadda Mullahanwálá,	4. Chhuni Rahmat Khán,
2. Burj Fattu,	5. Chhuni Mir Mahomed,
3. Chhuni Sultán,	6. Burj Ghose,

Chapter II:

History and
Leading Families.

Further changes.

A fourth *tahsíl* created.

The Kalowál *tahsíl* broken up.

Final changes.

Interior sub-divi-
sions remodelled.

Chapter II.

History and
Leading Families.
Development since
annexation.

and in 1880-81 the two villages, Burj Rahma and Burj Jowaya, were transferred to Gujranwala, to which district they originally belonged, but had been cut off and attached to this in 1877-78.

Some conception of the development of the district since it came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. II, which gives some of the leading statistics for five-yearly periods, so far as they are available; while most of the other tables appended to this work give comparative figures for the last few years. In the case of Table No. II, it is probable that the figures are not always strictly comparable, their basis not being the same in all cases from one period to another. But the figures may be accepted as showing in general terms the nature and extent of the advance made.

District officers
since annexation.

The following table shows the Deputy Commissioners who have held charge of the district since annexation with the period of their charge:—

Name.	From	To
Captain W. C. Birch	Annexation,	25th December 1852
Major G. G. Hollings	25th December 1853	3rd May 1854
G. Quenby, Esq.	31st May 1855	11th August 1857
W. H. Jones, Esq.	16th August 1859	14th November 1859
G. Quenby, Esq.	16th November 1859	9th March 1860
D. O. Macnabb, Esq.	16th March 1861	29th August 1861
Captain J. B. Smily.	21st August 1861	26th December 1861
Captain H. J. Hawes	26th December 1861	25th July 1862
Captain W. G. Davies	26th July 1862	11th December 1862
Captain J. W. H. Johnstone	12th December 1862	17th May 1870
Captain E. P. Gordon	18th May 1870	9th November 1870
Captain E. Corbyn	10th November 1870	8th March 1872
Captain R. P. Nisbet	9th March 1872	1st December 1872
Colonel H. A. Dwyer	2nd December 1872	10th September 1873
R. Clarke, Esq.	20th September 1873	18th November 1875
Colonel H. A. Dwyer	19th November 1875	26th March 1876
Captain E. C. Corbyn	27th March 1876	27th February 1878
Captain R. Barth-Jonew	4th February 1878	20th March 1878
Captain E. C. Corbyn	21st March 1878	18th September 1879
Major W. J. Parker	10th September 1879	12th December 1879
J. Frisselle, Esq.	12th December 1879	16th January 1882
Lieut-Col. E. C. Corbyn	16th January 1882	to date.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each *tahsil* and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families, while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII.

The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881 :—

Percentage of total population who live in villages	...	Persons	...	87.76
		Males	...	87.97
		Females	...	87.52
Average rural population per village	568
Average total population per village and town	632
Number of villages per 100 square miles	14
Average distance from village to village, in miles	2.87
Density of population per square mile of	Total area	Total population	...	90
	Cultivated area	Total population	...	514
	Cultivable area	Rural population	...	451
	Culturable area	Total population	...	108
		Rural population	...	94
Number of resident families per occupied house	...	Villages	...	1.85
		Towns	...	1.48
Number of persons per occupied house	...	Villages	...	6.84
		Towns	...	5.92
Number of persons per resident family	...	Villages	...	4.81
		Towns	...	3.94

In his District Report on the Census of 1881, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows :—

“ The distribution of population in the district varies from 142 per square mile for the Bhera *tahsil* to only 53 in Khushab, the populous portions being those lying on and near the banks of the rivers Jhelam and Chenab, while the inlying portions consist of large tracts of grazing and waste lands with villages situated at long intervals. Bhera is the only *tahsil* with lands on both rivers, while Khushab contains the largest amount of waste lands both in plains and hills, a large part of it being situated in the Salt Range.”

The following discussion by Colonel Davies of the population of the several physical tracts into which the district is divided, as ascertained at the Census of 1855, throws much light upon the local distribution of the people :—

“ It is almost superfluous to state, after what has already been written, that the population is very unequally divided over this tract of country. The following table shows what the actual distribution is, the information being arranged according to the natural divisions of the district, the distinctive features of which have been described in the foregoing pages :—

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of po-
pulation.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of population by tracts.

Natural Divisions	POPULATION 1853 A.D.			Area in square miles.	Average of population on to the square mile.
	Hindoos	Musulmans	Total		
Bistie	22,772	10,672	33,444	734	364
Nakka	17,123	19,914	37,037	477	783
Salt Range	1,529	20,111	21,640	203	76
Wohde	4,673	23,360	27,933	821	34
Utar	2,917	33,902	36,819	1,131	26
Total	52,441	10,612	63,053	919	69
Total	22,772	20,914	43,686	4,742	91

“Thus it will be seen that the divisions of the district exclusively devoted to agriculture are far from being thickly inhabited. The population of the Salt Range appears less dense than it really is, owing to the cultivated and culturable area in that part bearing so small a ratio to the hills themselves, which are only used as pasture grounds for cattle. The land which comes under these two denominations is considerably less than one-seventh of the whole area of the range. In actual area it only amounts to 46,100 acres, while the inhabitants number 28,607 souls, so that in place of a thin population, we have the very dense one of 400 to the square mile. The fact is, that land throughout the Salt Range is very minutely divided, and is barely sufficient for the support of its inhabitants.”

Distribution by houses.

The Deputy Commissioner in his Census Report of 1881 thus discussed the distribution by houses and families:—

“The fact of so many houses being uninhabited should not be set down to any recent and sudden emigration or desertion by the people of their homes, but to the custom of the agricultural classes of building houses on their wells and lands situated at a distance from the towns or villages where their permanent abodes are; such outlying houses generally are only occupied in the hot season or during the day in the cold weather, and the custom is necessitated by the large areas in the district, the large amount of land to each village, and the distance of the more remotely situated land from the village *abaddi*. It will be observed that the proportion of unoccupied to occupied houses is much greater in towns than in villages. In all the towns of this district there is a considerable agricultural population cultivating lands at a greater or less distance from the towns, and possessing houses on such lands, but returning to the town at night. In towns, moreover, shops are always unoccupied at night. In a very small degree some effect as regards the number of unoccupied houses may be attributed to whole families in certain parts of the district having temporarily left their homes for work on the railway or in consequence of the distress caused by a succession of bad harvests, but such persons had generally returned to their villages before the night of the Census, prospects having changed for the better.

“As to the total number of houses, I am inclined to think it has been under-reckoned, especially as regards the occupied houses. The increase is not in proportion to the increase of population, and the result is that the number of persons per house was for the Census of 1868 only four, while for the present census it is six for occupied houses.* It does not appear from the previous Census Report whether the former figures included unoccupied as well as occupied houses; but if it did not, I do not think that the increase of population per house has been quite so great as is hereby represented. The definition of a house was not well understood by the Census agency, and there was a tendency to treat whole enclosures, containing several houses, as a single house.

* But the house of 1868 corresponded with the family of 1881.—EDITOR.

“ Considering, however, the habit of the brothers of a divided family and their descendants continuing to live in separate parts of the same court-yard long after they have split into separate families, perhaps the average of four persons per house given in the last Census returns was something under the mark, and the figures in the present table showing an average of $1\frac{1}{2}$ families per house are not so inaccurate ; nor should they be taken as indicating the growth of overcrowding, especially in villages, where houses are open and cover a good deal of superficial space.”

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and states with Migration and birth-place of population. which the district has exchanged population, the number of migrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by *tahsils*. Further details will be found in Table No. XI and in supplementary Tables C. to H. of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the same report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 26,141, of whom 13,903 are males and 12,238 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Punjab is 34,889, of whom 19,644 are males and 15,245 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth-place :—

	Grain.	Loss.
Persons	63	52
Males	63	59
Females	61	77

Proportion per mille of total population.

BORN IN	PROPORTION PER MILLE OF RESIDENT POPULATION.								
	RURAL POPULATION			URBAN POPULATION.			TOTAL POPULATION.		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
The District	939	941	939	923	927	923	938	939	937
The Province	997	999	999	991	998	993	998	997	997
India	999	1,000	1,000	999	1,000	999	998	999	998
Asia	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000

The following remarks on the migration to and from Sháhpur are taken from the Census Report :—

“ Sháhpur is not only a very sparsely populated district, but canal irrigation has been considerably extended of late years. Consequently Sháhpur takes population from the neighbouring districts of Gujranwála Gujrát, and Jhang. But the disinclination of the trans-Salt Range people to cross the range, which has been already alluded to, is shown by the almost absolute absence of immigration from the tract in question except in the case of Jhelum, which is hardly an exception as both districts include at once cis-Salt Range country and a part of the range itself. The excess emigration into Jhelum and Pindi is of course accounted for by the abnormal demand for labour in these districts at the time of the Census ; and the high percentage of males shows how largely temporary, in the case of the latter district at least, the emigration was. The emigration into Dera Ismail and Bannu is probably due to the semi-nomad population of the *thal* or sandy prairies of Sháhpur tending towards the valley of the Indus, as they gradually settle down and take to agricultural pursuits. The emigrants are probably largely graziers pasturing their herds in the Sháhpur plateaus.”

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

The figures in the statement below show the population of the district as it stood at the three enumerations of 1855, 1868, and 1881:—

	Census.	Persons	Males	Females	Density per square mile.
Actuals ...	1855	...	372,710	185,431	81
	1868	...	500,554	251,676	92
	1881	...	621,614	312,757	99
Percentages {	1868 on 1855	...	21.7	...	123
	1881 on 1868	...	11.6	11.5	114

Unfortunately, the boundaries of the district have changed so much since the Census of 1855 that it is impossible to compare the published figures; and the only statistics available are those compiled

at the Regular Settlement from the records of 1855 which give no details of sex. It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 97 for males, 113 for females, and 104 for persons, at which rate the male population would be doubled in 71.8 years, the female in 61.9 years, and the total population in 60.8 years.

Year.	Persons	Males	Females
1861	421.8	221.7	200.9
1864	452.9	229.1	223.8
1868	483.4	230.6	251.8
1871	484.9	232.2	252.7
1875	499.4	237.8	261.6
1876	491.0	224.6	221.3
1877	484.6	219.3	212.7
1879	453.3	237.3	216.1
1880	455.0	239.8	214.8
1881	462.8	241.9	219.9
1882	467.6	241.1	223.5

Supposing the same rate of increase to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be in hundreds as shown in the margin.

Nor is it improbable that the rate of increase will be sustained. The recent construction of the railway will almost certainly develop the district; while it is unlikely that the loss by emigration described at page 29 should continue at past rates. The increase in urban population since 1868 has been smaller than that in rural population, the numbers living in 1881 for every 100 living in 1868 being 107 for urban and 115 for total population. This is probably due to the fact that telegraphs and railways have largely diminished the importance of the smaller and more local towns at the expense of a few great centres of commerce. The populations of individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI. Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various *tahsils* is shown in the margin.

Tahsil.	Total Population.		Percentage of population of 1881 on that of 1868.
	1868	1881	
Shihpur	103,697	122,633	119
Khanhib	125,402	131,615	105
Bhera	112,727	107,290	120
Total district*	3,63,796	4,21,503	114

*These figures do not agree exactly with the published figures of the Census Report of 1868 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

On this subject the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his report on the District Census of 1881:—

"Increase has taken place in all the *tahsils*, but has been greatest in Bherna, next greatest in Shahpur, and least of all in Khushab. This is just as might have been expected, the Bherna *tahsil* being the most prosperous in the district and the most favourably situated with regard to climate, rainfall and facility of cultivation. Khushab is the least prosperous *tahsil*, and the one which has suffered the most in late years from drought, bad crops, and general distress, and from which there had been some little emigration. The increase has taken place in both sexes, but the number of males exceeds that of females by about 5 per cent. The rate of increase however has been slightly greater among females than males; and this is probably due rather to more correct enumeration in the present Census than to any real difference having taken place in the ratio between the two sexes, for the preponderance of males over females is undoubtedly, though, as will afterwards be seen, probably not arising from any great difference in the birth-rate. The rate of increase of the whole population since last Census seems quite as great as might have been anticipated even in a district eminently healthy, and peculiarly free from the fever epidemics which devastate other districts, and among a naturally sturdy and hardy people, marrying as soon as they can obtain wives, and without any care, or much necessity for care, for provision for their offspring.

"During the same period (1868 to 1881) cultivation has increased from 409,682 to 529,788 acres, or 29 per cent, and there are still 1,981,954 acres of culturable but uncultivated land in the district. It is somewhat satisfactory that the district is one in which there was room for such an increase of population, and that the rate of increase has not outstripped the means of sustenance."

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881,

Chapter III, A:

Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

Births and deaths.

	1880	1881
Males ..	21	22
Females ..	18	20
Persons ..	39	41

distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year, is shown in Tables Nos. XIA and XIB. The annual birth rates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, are shown in the margin.

The figures below show the annual death rates per mille since 1868, calculated on the population of that year:—

	1868	1869	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	Average.
Males ..	19	21	20	22	24	27	24	25	26	23	31	31	31	23	27
Females ..	17	19	22	23	20	25	22	23	22	22	30	29	31	22	29
Persons ..	18	20	23	23	25	26	23	24	25	22	30	29	31	22	26

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving; but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and specially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881 which will be found at page 56 of that

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Age and sex.

report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death rates in individual towns as are available, will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great detail in Tables IV to VII of the Census Report of 1881, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII, of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for *tahsils*. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures:—

	0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-13	10-15	15-20
Persons ...	225	213	212	215	312	1,412	1,678	1,031	742
Males ...	225	203	202	223	313	1,424	1,691	1,072	753
Females ...	373	324	307	260	295	1,014	1,454	530	275
	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60	61-65
Persons ...	749	718	612	417	673	215	825	184	232
Males ...	722	715	579	427	654	201	814	174	214
Females ...	707	743	626	457	321	41	143	73	73

Population.	Villages.	Towns.	Total.
All religions	1,455	...	6,232
Hindus	1,453	...	6,210
Muslims	1,451	5,672	5,163
Sikhs	1,451	5,153	5,012
Muslims	1,451	5,451	5,312
Christians	1,451	5,370	5,231

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindus	Muslims
0-1	607	1,704	224
1-2	514	1,616	1,012
2-3	1,017	1,015	1,018
3-4	978
4-5	957

of the district:—

Excess of males over females.

"The preponderance of males over females is less among Hindus than Muhammadans, and is greatest among the Sikhs (omitting the minutely small classes of Christians, Sarhagis, &c.); and this is due probably to a great many of the Sikhs enumerated on the night of Census not being permanent residents of the district, but travellers, traders, policemen, &c., passing through or temporarily living in the district, with wives and families elsewhere. The number of females approaches more nearly that of males in the Khushab than in any other of the *tahsils*. This is a little remarkable, and probably arises from the fact that the people of Khushab (including the *thals*, the inhabitants of which are camel-owners and carriers) are more migratory than those of the other *tahsils*, and that a great many persons (mostly males) who had left their homes from distress had gone in search

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is shown in the margin.

The decrease at each successive enumeration is almost certainly due to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the Census of 1881, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of life was found to be as shown in the margin.

On the subject of the proportion of the sexes, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his report on the Census

of labour, had not yet returned. It is also worthy of remark that both among Muhammadans and Hindus the difference between males and females is less in towns than in villages. This is partly due to the fact that Hindus, among whom the disparity is less, are more numerous in the towns; and it indicates also that women are more frequently married from villages into towns than from towns into villages. Among Sikhs, on the other hand, the disproportion is largest in towns; and this because the temporary residents just alluded to are found more often in towns than in villages.

Considerable light is thrown by the age table on the ratio of males to females in the district. It is only at the age of above three that any disproportion is visible. From birth to three years of age, the numbers are almost equal: from two to three the number of female children is actually greater than that of males, but still nearly equal. From three to four and four to five, the difference is only 1·25 and 1·70 per cent. From five to twenty the difference is more marked. But these differences are probably more apparent than real, in consequence of the ages of female children not being very correctly stated, understated when about five or six years old, and overstated when reaching or after reaching the age of puberty. Something may also be due to greater mortality beginning to show itself in female children about these ages, in consequence of the less care taken of female than male children; but the consequences of neglect would naturally be more apparent in children of even tenderer years, and moreover the difference in proportion diminishes after the age of twenty. The figures denote a much greater death rate among women than men after the age of forty-five, as might indeed be expected from the harder and less cared-for lives led by women than by men. It has already been observed that the preponderance of males over females is less among Hindus than Muhammadans. The inference from these details is that Hindu women are healthier, better nourished, and better cared for than Muhammadans, and this is in accordance with ordinary observation.

The number of children under one year old, both Hindu and Muhammadan, being almost exactly equal, it would also seem to follow that the disproportion which afterwards takes place is due rather to greater mortality among females in later life than to any great difference in the birth-rate. I have taken the trouble to compare these figures with the latest and presumably the most trustworthy returns of births published by the Sanitary Commissioner. According to these, the percentage of births is fifty-two males to forty-eight females for the whole district. For towns where birth registration is better carried out, it is fifty-one males to forty-nine females. (For the 2nd quarter it is only 50·6 to 49·4). The present Census table is likely to be more correct than Police and Municipal returns, for it is hardly possible that mistakes in children's sex were committed at enumeration, and that boys were entered as girls to any considerable extent. It is easier for all the births not to be entered in the periodical birth returns, and the omissions probably occur chiefly in female births. There is therefore reason to believe that the number of female and male births in this district is very nearly even.

The disparity arising in later years points only to the greater unhealthiness of the life, surroundings, and occupations of women than of men. It does not point to any studied bad treatment of female children. No doubt female children are little prized, and more neglected than male, but hardly more so than married women or female adults, who are very valuable; and there is nothing in the social condition or traditions of the people to cause them, by willful neglect, to try to get rid of their female offspring. There is nothing in the bringing-up or settling of daughters rendering

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Excess of males over females.

Ratio of males to females at various ages.

Difference is less among Hindus than Muhammadans at all ages.

Male and female birth-rate nearly equal.

Cause of excess of males in later life.

Chapter III, A.**Statistical.****Treatment of female children.****Value of female children.****Civil condition.****Polygamy.****Widows and Widowers.****Infant marriages.**

them more expensive, or troublesome to provide for than sons. Just the contrary is the case. The daughter is made to work as hard as the son, and is easily married, and her marriage costs nothing, while that of the son only is expensive. Her father spends nothing on her marriage except a little food. Her ornaments and even her clothes are provided by her husband and his family, at least such is the custom among all the agricultural and common classes of the district. Only among people of position is the marriage of a daughter attended with any considerable expense, and even then that of a son would involve a larger outlay. Hindus, perhaps, at least the better classes, spend a little more on their daughters' marriages and do not as a rule get rid of them on such easy and grecly terms as Muhammadans, and yet the percentage of females is greater among them. The same state of things prevails, however, generally among Hindus. It is to be remarked, however, that it is only by the very poor or the very disreputable of any class that a pecuniary consideration is ever taken for giving a daughter in marriage. But a sort of barter or exchange is very common, and the giving or promising of a girl is often used as the means of obtaining a wife for some male relation of the bride from some relation or connection of the bridegroom. The possession of a daughter is not only not a burden, but a *vara* and convenience, and still female children are looked upon with disfavour and treated with neglect; probably a relic of the times not so very old when sons were valued for their fighting qualities."

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his Census report for the district:—

"Where the number of males exceed that of females, and women marry at a considerably younger age than men, the number of unmarried persons will be greater among males than females, and such it is shown by the present statistics. The percentage of single persons, male and female, to the whole male and female population, is about 58 and 41 respectively. The number of females with husbands alive is greater than that of married males (whose wives are alive), and the difference is about 45 per cent. on the total number of married males. But it is not to be inferred from this that polygamy is practised to this extent. The number of men with more wives than two is not shown. Of the number of men with more than one wife alive, there is no doubt it would be found that the majority have three wives. Both among Muhammadans and Hindus polygamy is only indulged in by persons who can afford it, when the first marriage has not been productive of male children, or rather of no children at all; for if any children are born, the chances are in favour of some of them being males. Where no children have been born of the first or second marriage, a third and even a fourth wife is often taken. But even where no children have been born, the taking a second wife is by no means the rule. It depends on the man's means, and his ability to procure a wife, which is not always an easy matter.

"Probably the percentage of widows will be high in comparison with other districts. The re-marriage of widows is almost unknown in this district, even among the commonest classes. The custom of *chādar andī* and *kareesa* marriages does not exist. It is believed to be most prevalent in Hindu or Sikh districts and least so in the Muhammadan ones. At all events it finds little favour among the Muhammadans of this district."

"Infant marriages are very few compared with adult ones. Of the total number of persons, and especially males, up to fifteen years of age, a very small percentage is married, most of whom no doubt are married about the

13th or 14th year ; and it would be found that infant marriages take place chiefly among the wealthier classes and those with pretensions to social superiority. Among the ordinary run of natives throughout the district, the general rule is betrothal during infancy, but not long before reaching the age of puberty, and marriage as soon as both parties have arrived at that age. Late marriage is frequently necessitated because one reaches the age before the other, or either has died before marriage and another marriage has to be arranged for. Very often both men and women, especially men, are long past the marriageable age without being either betrothed or married ; and women not unfrequently, from this cause and also when they are older than the youths to whom they are engaged, make a choice for themselves and marry without the consent of their relatives. This is at the bottom of half the suits, which are very numerous in this district, for recovery of wives, and prosecutions for enticing or taking away married women."

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Late marriages.

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes and lepers in the district in each religion.

The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables XIV to XVII of the Census Report for 1881 give further details of the age and religion of the infirm.

Infirmities.

Infirmitv.	Males.	Females.
Insane	10	7
Blind	60	76
Deaf and dumb	20	13
Leprous	3	1

The figures given below show the composition of the Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned their birth-place and their language as European. They are taken from Tables IIIA, IX and XI of the Census Report for 1881 :—

European and Eurasian population.

DETAILS.		Males.	Females	Persons.
Races of Christian Population	Europeans and Americans	19	6	25
	Eurasians	1	1	1
	Native Christians	3	1	3
	Total Christians...	23	7	29
Language	English	21	6	27
	Other European Languages
	Total European Languages...	21	6	27
Birth-place	British Isles	1	1	2
	Other European countries
	Total European countries	1	1	2

But the figures for the races of Christians, which are discussed in Part VII of Chapter IV of the Census Report, are very untrustworthy ; and it is certain that many who were really Eurasians returned themselves as Europeans. The figures for European birth-place are also incomplete, as many Europeans made entries, probably names of villages and the like, which, though they were almost certainly English, could not be identified, and were therefore classed as *doubtful and unspecified*.

Chapter III, B.

Social and
Religious Life.
Houses.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

The dwellings of the common people throughout the district consists of one or more rooms called *kothás*, with a court-yard in front. This court-yard, named *vhra*, is often common to several houses. The rooms are built ordinarily of clay, gradually piled up in successive layers and then plastered. The roofs are invariably flat, and are used as sleeping places during the hot weather. In the court-yard is generally seen a manger (*khurli*), and a house in which the cattle are sheltered from the cold in the winter months, which structures (called *sakh* in the *bir*, where they are very capacious) consist generally of four walls covered with a thatch. The only exceptions to this general description, are the habitations of the people in the *thal* and in the hills. The former are often composed of nothing but wood and grass, and the latter are built entirely of boulders cemented together with clay; as, however, walls of this kind have little or no power of resisting rain, the roof is always supported on strong posts driven into the ground, the walls acting merely as a defence against the weather. As a rule the houses of the *zamīndārs* are built for them by the village carpenter (*tarkhān*) or potter (*kumhār*), who receive their food while the work is going on and a present of clothes or money when it is finished; payment for work at a fixed rate is only made by *Khatris* and other non-proprietors. The timber used for roofing is usually *kikar* or *ber* in the plains, and *kas* in the hills, the first two being usually the produce of the *zamīndārs*' own fields; beams of *deodar* or *shisham* are only to be seen in the houses of the rich.

Furniture.

The requirements of a population low in the scale of civilization are few, and their furniture consists exclusively of necessaries. First there are the receptacles for storing grain, of various sizes from the dimensions of a small room to those of a beer barrel; these are made by the women of the house, of fine clay mixed with chopped straw. The larger kind, called *sakār*, are square, and hold from forty to fifty maunds; the smaller description, *kalloti*, are cylindrical in form, and hold but a few maunds. Next are to be seen some spinning wheels, as many as there are women; apparatus for churning milk; an instrument for cleaning cotton (*belna*); a number of circular baskets with and without lids, made of reeds (*khāri*, *taung*, &c.) in which are kept articles of clothing and odds and ends; trays of reeds (*chhōj*, *chakor*), used in cleaning grain; a goat-skin water bag (*kuni*), used on journeys, or when employed in the fields at a distance from home; a set of wooden measures for grain (*topi*, *paropi*, &c.); a leather bag (*khallar*) for carrying flour when away from home; a variety of cooking vessels, some of iron, and others of a composition resembling bell metal; a number of earthen pots and pans in which are stored grain, condiments and other articles of food; a coarse iron sieve (*parūn*); a pestle and mortar (*dauri*) in which to pound spices and condiments. These, with a few stools (*pikra pikri*), and cots, complete the list of the fittings of a peasant's cottage. Everything is neatly arranged in order: space has to be economized, and things not in use are disposed on shelves resting upon pegs driven into the walls.

The food of the common people is very simple, consisting, in the hot weather, of cakes of wheaten flour moistened with butter-milk, for which butter, or *gur* (raw sugar) is sometimes substituted; and in the cold weather, of *bajra*, with the same accompaniments. During the hot months the dough, after being kneaded, is taken to the village ovens, kept by a class called *machhis*, who live on the perquisites derived from baking food for the rest of the village community; but in the cold weather every family cooks for itself. The regular meals are taken twice a day, the first between 9 and 10 o'clock in the forenoon, and the other in the evening, as soon as it becomes dark, the time varying with the seasons from 6 to 8 P.M. In addition to these regular meals, in the hot weather the remains of the previous day's food, with a little butter-milk, is taken to the men working in the fields about an hour after sunrise, and parched grain is eaten in the afternoon: with the evening meal either vegetables or *dal* (lentils) is served according to the seasons. In the *thal* during the cold weather water-melons enter largely into the ordinary food of the inhabitants, and the seeds are commonly parched and eaten mixed with other grain.

The following estimate of the average annual consumption of food by the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879. It shows the number of *seers* annually consumed by a family consisting of five souls, and including two children and an old person:—

AGRICULTURISTS.		TOWNS-PEOPLE.	
Grain.	Seers.	Grains.	Seers.
Wheat for 4 months	510	Wheat for 11 months	935
Barley do. 2 do.	96	Bajra do. 1 do.	115
Bajra do. 4 do.	510	Pulses do. 12 do.	112
Makki do. 1 do.	128		
Chana do. 1 do.	128		
Total	1,871	Total	1,152

The male portion of the agricultural population is more or less employed in some one or other of the operations of husbandry all the year round, and this is especially the case in the tracts where crops are artificially irrigated; but the men of the pastoral tribes lead a comparatively lazy life, the demands on their labour being limited to drawing water for the cattle and milking the cows. Women, on the other hand, are everywhere hard worked, the drudgery of their domestic occupations leaving them scarcely any leisure for rest or amusement. They must be up before it is light to churn the milk of the night before, and then sweep the house, throw away the rubbish, and make cakes of the cow-dung. Water has then to be fetched, an operation of great labour, involving, as it sometimes does, the carrying of two or three large jars several miles; when this is over, it is time to commence cooking the morning meal, which when ready has to be taken to

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food.

Daily life.

* In the Salt Range, and along its foot.

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Daily life.

the men working in the fields. If after this their services are not required to watch the crops and frighten away the birds, they are expected to spin cotton or wool, to be made into clothing for the family ; indeed, the two occupations are often combined. Again early in the afternoon preparations have to be made for the evening meal, the vegetables or *dal* are placed on the fire, and a second trip made to the well or village tank for water. By the time they return it is time to knead the flour, make it into cakes, and cook it for their husbands, sons and brothers ; for these lords of the creation will be wrath if everything is not ready for their reception on their return from work ; they will however unbend so far as to assist in tying up and milking the cows. This done, the milk is put over a slow fire to warm, and the family sits down to dinner ; and so the days pass with little variation from year to year, bringing no rest for the household drudge, till her girls are old enough to take her place, or age unsuits her for further labour.

Moles of reckoning time

Closely connected with this subject is the mode of reckoning time in vogue among the people. They divide the day into twelve parts : some of the divisions vary with the seasons, while others are fixed and constant ; but as nearly all have reference to some one or more of their habitual employments, it necessarily follows that the divisions of the day are more minute than those of the night. The following table gives the nomenclature adopted respectively by Muhammadans and Hindus, and opposite each recognized division of time will be found the corresponding period, according to our method of computing time :—

DIVISIONS OF TIME AS RECOGNIZED.		Corresponding English time.	
Among Muhammadans.	Among Hindus.		
Dhammi wela ...	Parbat	The time when the day is about to break, before objects can be clearly distinguished.
Nawāt wela ...	None	About half an hour before sunrise.
Wadda wela ...	None	Sunrise—a little before or a little after.
Hoti wela ...	Hoti wela	Varies with the season from 8 A.M. to between 10 and 11 A.M.
Dopahar ...	Dopahar	Noon.
Peshin wela ...	Piebhalapahar	3 P.M.
Naddi Peshin	None	"Little Peshin," half way between "Peshin" and "Digar."
Digar wela ...	None	About an hour before sunset.
Nimshān wela	Tirkālān wela	The "Nimshān" of the Persian—a little after sunset.
Khustan wela	Hoti wela	Sleeping time, varying with the season from 8 to 10 P.M.
Adhr-rat ...	Adi-rat	Midnight.
Sahar ...	None	Corruption of "Sahar" 8 A.M.

Dress.

The every-day dress of the male portion of the Muhammadan population living north of the Jhelum river consists of four garments—a *majla*, a *kurti*, a *chadar*, and a turban or *pay* as it is here called. The first is a piece of cloth about three yards long, and a yard and a half wide, which is tied tightly round the waist, and allowed to hang in loose folds over the lower part of the body. The *kurti* is a full cut tunic, with large open sleeves reaching a

little below the waist. The *chádar* is made of three breadths of cloth; in length about as many yards, and is worn something in the manner of a plaid. Of the turban nothing further need be said, than that its size depends much on the social position of the wearer, and increases with his importance. South of the Jhelum, the *kurta* is discarded, in the *bár* it is never seen; indeed the man who would wear such a garment there must be possessed of more than ordinary moral courage to endure the jokes that would certainly be made at his expense. The material of which this simple clothing is made is the ordinary coarse country cloth, except that along the rivers, especially the Chenáb, coloured *lungí*s are often used as *majla*s. The Káliárs, the chief camel-owners of the Sháhpur *tahsil*, are also much given to wearing *lungí*s. The Hindús to a great extent follow the fashions of the Muhammadans among whom they live in regard to the use of the *kurta*, but their mode of tying the turban is somewhat different, and the *dhoti* replaces the *majla*, the difference between these garments being in the manner of putting them on. The Muhammadan women also wear the *majla* (tying it somewhat differently to the men) and this is usually a coloured *lungí*. Their other garments are two, the *choli* and the *chádar*. The former has short sleeves, and fits closely round the breasts, leaving the remainder of the body bare, except where a small lappet hangs down and hides the stomach. The *chádar* is a piece of cloth about three yards long and one and a half wide, worn as a veil over the head and upper part of the body, from which it falls in graceful folds nearly to the feet behind. The *choli* is generally made of strips of many coloured silk, the *chádar* of a coarse but thin description of country cloth called *dhotar*, sometimes dyed but more often plain. To this the *thal* is an exception, where veils of many colours, the patterns formed by spots disposed in a variety of ways on a dark ground are the rule. In the hills, coloured garments are scarcely ever seen. The Hindú women of the Khatrí class wear full trowsers called *suthen* made of a striped material called *susi*, the ground of which is usually blue. Over the head is thrown a *chádar* of coarse cloth, prettily embroidered in many coloured silks called *phullári*, and round the upper part of the body is worn a loose *kurta* of silk or muslin. The women of the Arora class are clothed like the Khatránís, except that, in place of the trowsers, they wear a skirt called a *ghaggra*, and sometimes the *majla*. It may be added that it is the invariable rule, even among Muhammadans, that a girl shall wear a *kurta* and plait the two front tresses of her hair until she is married.

The ornaments worn by the people are chiefly of silver, and are of so many shapes and sizes that no mere description would serve to convey even an approach to a correct idea of them. A sheet containing drawings of all the ornaments in general use, with a brief note under each, giving the name by which it is known, and other particulars regarding it, is attached to Colonel Davies' Settlement Report. The workmanship of all is most rough, but the designs of some are not inelegant. It may be mentioned here that

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Ornaments.

Chapter III, E.**Social and Religious Life.****Rules regulating devolution of property.**

the large silver ornament worn on the head, somewhat resembling in size and shape a shield, and called a *choti phill*, is worn only by women of the Arora class, and is nowhere to be seen out of Shahpur.

The rules under these two headings can best be given together. The general rule, in regard to inheritance, is that known as *pegramd*, where all the sons of one father inherit alike. The contrary custom of *chunddrand*, or equal division between the issue of each wife, is the exception, and is chiefly found in villages held by Syeds, Kureshis and Pathans, tribes in which polygamy is more commonly practiced. Another generally recognised rule is, that female children shall only obtain a share in the inheritance when the father by the execution of a formal *dard* during his life-time has transferred to them a specific portion. Illegitimate children, and the issue of former husbands (*gichhlag*), are altogether excluded. In default of male issue, widows may inherit on a life-tenure only, but they have no power to alienate any portion of the property by sale, gift, or mortgage, unless with the concurrence of the next-of-kin. In some few villages, provision has been made for the case when the next heirs refuse to contribute towards such necessary expenses as the marriage of the deceased shareholder's daughter; in such cases the widow is allowed to raise money by selling or mortgaging the whole, or any portion, of the estate. During their life-time proprietors can, of course, subject to the exercise of the right of pre-emption on the part of the remainder of the coparcenary, dispose of their land as they will. The only exceptions to the above rules as they affect widows are in estates owned by Syeds, Kureshis, Hindus, and in some parts, Khokhars, where, owing to widows not being allowed to remarry, all restrictions on their power to dispose of the property of their deceased husbands have been removed.

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each *tahsil* and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the Census of 1881, and Table No. XLIII gives similar figures for towns. Tables Nos. III, IIIA, IIIB of the Report of that Census give further details in the subject.

Religion.	Rural population	Urban population.	Total population.
Hindu	1,695	2,915	4,610
Sikh	312	140	452
Jain	—	—	—
Muslim	2,622	2,670	5,292
Christian	—	4	4

Followed in the classification of Hindus, are fully discussed in Part I Chapter IV of the Census Report.

Sect.	Rural population	Total population
Sunnite	—	—
Shi'ite	—	—
Wahabite	—	—
Others and unspecified	—	—

No. IIIA of the Census Report; but the figures are, for reasons

of every 10,000 of the population by religion is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures must be taken, and especially the rule fol-

lowed in the classification of Hindus, are fully discussed in Part I

Chapter IV of the Census Report.

The distribution of every 1,000 of the Muslim population by sect is

shown in the margin. The

sects of the Christian popu-

lation are given in Table

explained in Part VII, Chapter IV of the Report, so very imperfect that it is not worth while to reproduce them here. Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any disquisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by *tahsils* can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. But the land-owning classes and the great mass of the village menials are wholly Musalmán, the Hindus and Sikhs being almost confined to the mercantile and official classes and their priests. The proportion of Hindus is much greater in towns than in villages. The seven towns of the district include nearly one-third of the whole Hindú population, and the remainder are absorbed by the largest villages, since in the smaller ones not a single Hindu is met with except here and there a petty shop-keeper.

The figures for religion lead to another subject, not altogether devoid of interest, both in a statistical point of view, and from the light it throws on the character and habits of feeling of the population. It is the subject of their superstitious reverence for the holy dead, their periodical pilgrimages to the tombs of saintly characters, and their belief in the efficacy of prayers offered up and vows registered on these occasions. The table at the top of next page gives a list of the principal shrines, the dates on which large gatherings, or *melas* as they are called, take place, and an approximate estimate of the numbers present at each of these half-religious, half-festive, meetings.

No special arrangements are made for feeding and lodging at these assemblies. Those who attend them are for the most part inhabitants of the district, and have friends or relations in the neighbourhood. Such as have neither sleep in the open air or at the village hospices (*dáras*).

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of the principal languages current in the district separately for each *tahsil* and for the whole district. More detailed information will be found in Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1881, while in Chapter V of the same report the several languages are briefly discussed. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000

of the population by language, omitting small figures.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at the Census of 1881 for each religion and for the total population

Chapter III, B.

Social and Religious Life.

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Shrines and fairs.

Language.

Language.	Proportion per 10,000 of population
Hindustani	17
Punjabi	8,970
Pahari	12
All Indian languages	8,993
Non-Indian languages	1

Education.

Chapter III, B.

Social and Religious Life.

Shrines and fairs.

Locality where shrine is situated or fair held.	Name of shrine	Date and duration of Fair or gathering.	APPROXIMATE ATTENDANCE		Remarks.
			Men	Women	
Turhipur (6 miles south-west of Bhera)	Pir Adam Bhatia.	13th, 14th and 15th of Tawaun	1,000	2,000	By far the most largely attended of these, it will be seen, are the fair of Bishālā and the ancestor of the Raials of Shāhpur and of Bishālā.
Nalāl Shāh (close to the above)	Bishāl Shāh.	From 18th to 20th Asht.	2,000	3,000	Shāhpur (adjacent to Bhera.)
Shāhpur (adjacent to Bhera.)	Shāh Bāmā.	Two last Paudavas of Chet and two first Sunday in Bahāth.	2,000	3,000	Shāhpur is so far removed that the individuals comprising it nearly all congregate here at the last of the fair of Bhera, who possess the privilege of collecting on this occasion the day and night. From all parts of the Punjab attend this shrine, the appeal of the saintly character of the Pir being well known, the drawing of the religious and the saintly still.
Harsia (on the banks of the Chenab).	Shāh Shāhī.	12th Raisāth.	4,000	1,000	
Bhēra.	Pir Kāvānī.	17th Pītāra.	1,500	200	
Shāhpur.	Shāh Chāma.	22nd, 23rd & 24th of Chet.	8,000	10,000	
Bhēra (10 miles south-east of Civil Station).	Sultān Hātīb.	From 25th to end of Ramāna.	3,000	4,000	
Nihāng (10 miles south of Bishālā).	Pārīj Pīr.	1st Māgh.	1,000	4,000	
Pīr Hātīb, 16 miles north of Bishālā.	Pīr Hātīb.	18th Chet.	200	2,000	Jalālīn Shāh
Jahāma (Shāh, close to Nihāng) Ghot.	Jalālīn Shāh	1st and 2nd Asht.	200	2,000	
Khushāb.	Dial Bhāwan.	20th Chet and 1st Raisāth.	4,000	8,000	
	Hālā Dīwā.	21st Chet.	2,000	6,000	

Education.

Sex	Education.	Rural population	Total population	
			Under instruction	Can read and write
Male	Under instruction ..	313	162	477
Male	Can read and write ..	332	332	
Female	Under instruction ..	48	42	62
Female	Can read and write ..	44	42	62

regarding the attendance at Government and aided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII.

There are altogether 34 Government schools in this district

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians
Native Christians
Hindus ..	1,312	69
Musalmāns ..	763	33
Sikhs ..	135	...
Others
Children of agriculturists ..	490	...
" of non-agriculturists ..	1,729	...

margin. Colonel Davies thus described the state of education in the district in 1865:—

" It may be remarked that, excepting the large towns of Bhēra, Mānī, Khushāb and Shāhpur, and the Salt Range generally, there is little love of learning or appreciation of its benefits in any part of the district; in the bār the feeling in this respect is little short of aversion, and all attempts to overcome it have hitherto failed: the lawless habits of the population

of each taluk. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the Census returns. Statistics

of this part, are doubtless sufficient of themselves to explain this, as, in the Salt Range, owing to the almost absolute freedom from crime of the people and their strong religious instincts, the opposite effect is seen. The character of indigenous education in the district is almost entirely religious; wherever there is a *masjid* or *dharmasala*, there is to be found a school for teaching; in the former the *Korán* and other works relating to religion, and in the latter *Jepji*, a portion of the *Granth*, and certain works on science and morals. The *mulla* attached to the *masjid*, and the *bhat* of the *dharmasala* are paid chiefly in presents and fees; for instance, when a boy or girl has finished the reading of the *Korán* the father gives the teacher a present, varying from five to thirty rupees, and a smaller sum on the completion of other less important works. In addition to these precarious offerings, the *mallas* receive their *warifa* or daily bread, from all who can afford it, in the shape of small thick cakes, called *gogi*. These men also officiate at births, marriages, and deaths, taking their fees according to the custom of the place. The same system, *mutatis mutandis*, is followed in the remuneration of the *dharmasalids*. In none of these indigenous schools does the teacher receive a fixed salary, or regular fees from the parents of the pupils. Land is set apart as endowments for the support of the *masjids*, and the proceeds are appropriated by the *imám*, as the resident *mulla* is called."

Tables Nos. XL, XLI, and XLII, give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants. The character and disposition of each tribe will be found described in the following section under the tribal headings.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of

Chapter III, B.
Social and
Religious Life.
Education.

Character of the
people.

Poverty or wealth
of the people.

Assessment.	1869-70.	1870-71.	1871-72.
Class I. { Number taxed ..	325	570	160
Amount of tax ..	3,741	11,118	1,893
Class II. { Number taxed ..	3,747	151	95
Amount of tax ..	1,417	4,077	1,495
Class III. { Number taxed ..	21	70	37
Amount of tax ..	1,145	2,750	1,303
Class IV. { Number taxed ..	3	30	1
Amount of tax ..	677	1,620	116
Class V. { Number taxed	45	..
Amount of tax	5,381	..
Total ... { Number taxed ..	461	667	303
Amount of tax ..	8,223	21,903	4,397

its imposition. The distribution of licenses granted and fees collected in 1880-81 and 1881-82 between towns

	1880-81.		1881-82.	
	Towns.	Villages.	Towns.	Villages.
Number of licenses	180	334	196	323
Amount of fees ...	2,513	4,535	2,675	4,440

while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case the demand for their products necessarily

* This includes Government servants.

Chapter III, C. varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather-workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed below in Section **Tribes and Castes.**

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IXA shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of them are found all over the Panjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Shâhpur are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as landowners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following sections; and each caste will be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881. The Census statistics of caste were not compiled for *tehsils*, at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere clans or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and castes are available. But the general distribution of the more important landowning tribes may be broadly described as follows:—The Shâhpur Salt Range is entirely held by Awâns, with the exception of a colony of Janjâhs in its eastern portion. The *hal* is almost wholly in the hands of the Tiwâns. The valley of the Jhelum is occupied by Jhammats, Mekans, Biloches and Khokhars, and that of the Chenâb by Rânjhâs and Khokhars. The western *hal* is held by Jhammats and Mekans, the north-eastern by Gondals, and the south-eastern by Rânjhâs.

Area owned by each tribe.

The following table shows the area owned and revenue paid by each tribe as ascertained at the Settlement of 1865. No later statistics will be available till next Settlement.

Religion.	Tribe.	No. of villages	Area in acres.	Revenue, including Tax.	Remarks.
Musalmân.	Gondal ...	63	267,929	23,817	Converted Hindus.
	Hânjha ...	61	116,050	33,129	
	Jhammat ...	16	24,181	15,220	
	Mekan ...	27	54,312	8,043	
	Tiwâna ...	13	107,044	11,492	
	Janjâh ...	5	66,441	9,100	
	Khokhar ...	72	298,375	65,751	
	Awân ...	63	401,205	52,183	Mahomedan immigrants from the west.
	Biloche ...	41	161,511	16,750	
Hindu.	Miscellaneous ...	269	1,357,626	212,849	
	Total ...	634	2,035,134	307,049	
	Brahmins, Khatris, and Arooras, ...	13	61,020	8,572	
Grand Total ...		647	2,096,700	376,612	

Here, as in other districts of the western plains, the tribe and not the caste is the social unit, and while Rajpút means little more than a tradition of origin, Jat is commonly applied to all Muhammadan agriculturists who cannot claim higher descent. The following figures show the principal sub-divisions of Jats and Rajpúts returned at the Census of 1881. Of the Gondals no fewer than 6,674 returned themselves as Chauháns also, and are included in both figures; and the same thing has occurred with smaller numbers of many other tribes, while many tribes are returned partly as Jats and partly as Rajpúts :—

Chapter III, O.
Tribes and Castes.

Jats and Rajpúts.

JATS.			RAJPUTS.		
Class	Number.		Class.	Number.	
Bhatta	2,670	Bhatti	13,476
Sipra	1,794	Panwár	1,608
Gondal	305	Gondal	10,373
Khokhar	1,800	Khokhar	4,624
Hinjra	620	Tárar	1,173
Chadhar	1,870	Tiwindá	8,202
Paghár	1,154	Chadhar	1,877
Harval	1,100	Janjúá	8,727
Dhúdhi	426	Joya	2,195
			Chauhán	60,242
			Rájdhá	6,789
			Sál	2,403
			Mekan	5,181
			Jhammat	1,862
			Kalas	1,902

The Gondals, Jhammats, Mekans, and Tiwindás, all claim to be descended from a branch of the Surajbansi Rajpúts, and their traditions describe how they were all converted to Muhammadanism by the famous Bábá Farid, of Pák Pattan. It is not improbable, therefore, that they may be all descended from the same stock, though, owing to the lapse of time and the absence of anything in the shape of family records, all attempts to clear up this point have failed. This much may perhaps be inferred from coincidences in their traditions, that this large section of the existing population of the district migrated to its present abode within the last six hundred years.*

Rajpút Tribes.

The Gondals occupy the central portion of the Bherna *tahsil*, and are a pastoral people, subsisting almost entirely on the produce of their flocks and herds. Physically they are a fine race, owing doubtless to the free and active life they lead, and the quantities of animal food they consume, and if we except their inordinate passion for appropriating the cattle of their neighbours, which in their estimation carries with it no moral taint, they must be pronounced free from vice. The tribe is sub-divided into the Bhulluwáñas and Deowéñas, and from the latter proceed the Budhakas, Mamnáñas, and other less important off-shoots.

Gondals.

* Sheik Farid-ud-din better known as Bábá Farid, is stated in the *Ain-Albari* to have died at Pák Pattan in A. H. 668, which corresponds with the year 1269 of our era.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes and Castes.Jhammats and
Mekans.

The Jhammats and Mekans are found in great numbers throughout the Shâhpur *tahsil*. The former are a quiet industrious race devoted chiefly to agriculture, the latter are a more turbulent people, certain members of the tribe having always taken a prominent part in the troubles that agitated the district prior to the advent of settled Government. Both these tribes are descended from the same ancestor, from whom come also the Chachars, Dhûdkhîs and Hargans : these last, as being numerically few and holding comparatively little land, have been ranged in the statement on page 44 under the head "miscellaneous."

The Tiwâas.

The Tiwâas are a half-pastoral, half-agricultural tribe, occupying the tract intermediate between the *thâl* and *mohar* of the Khushâb *tahsil*. They are a fine hardy race of men, and make good soldiers, but their good qualities are sadly marred by a remarkably quarrelsome disposition, which is a source of never ending trouble to themselves, and to all with whom they are brought in contact. The Chiefs of this tribe have always held a commanding position in this part of the country.

The early history of the tribe is thus told in *Griñn's Panjab Chiefs*, pp. 519—521:—

"From a common ancestor have descended three remarkable tribes, the Siâls of Jhang, the Ghobas of Pindî Ghob, and the Tiwâas of Mithâ Tiwâa in Shâhpur. The Ghobas know but little of their past history, but they are claimed as kin by both Siâls and Tiwâas, who till lately were agreed as to their respective descent from Gheo, Tenu or Teo and See, the three sons of Rai Shankar, a Rajpût of Dhârnagar, the ancestor of the Ghobas being Gheo, of the Tiwâas Teo, and of the Siâls See. The lands of the Tiwâa tribe have lately been making further enquiries, and have now a different story; but whether the amended genealogy is more truthful than before, it is impossible to say. It makes Khinadeo father of (1) Rai Shankar the Siâl ancestor, (2) Tiwâa, who had three descendants, Wâtu the ancestor of the Daulipras, Latu the ancestor of the Patîla Tiwâas, and Titu, father of Mal ancestor of the Shâhpur Tiwâas and of Merikh ancestor of the Ghobas. It certainly seems more probable than the regular descent from the three sons of Rai Shankar. If the Tiwâas did not come to the Panjab with the Siâls, their emigration was no long time after, and must have been before the close of the fifteenth century. They soon embraced Muhammadanism and settled at Jâhâugir on the Indus, where they remained till the time of Mir Ali Khân, who by the advice of his spiritual guide, Falîr Sultan Hâjî, moved eastward with his tribe and many of the Shaikhs, Shahâolis, Mundâlis and others. He arrived at the country then called Dauda, and founded the village of Ukkli Mohla in the Shâhpur district. His son Mir Ahmad Khân, about the year 1680, built Mithâ Tiwâa, seven miles east of Ukkli Mohla, where he had found sweet water, from which the town was named (*mitha*, sweet). This Chief was engaged in constant hostilities with the Awâns, his neighbours to the north, and at Dâdu Khân and Sher Khân, the third and fourth Maliks, improved and enlarged Mithâ Tiwâa, which soon became a flourishing town, and many settlers from other parts of the country took up their residence in it."

Rânjhâs.

The latter history of the tribe has been already given.

The Rânjhâs, together with several other less important offshoots, constitute a branch of the great Bhatti tribe, Rajpûts of the

Chandrabansi race. They occupy the greater part of the Midh and Músa Cháhn *talukas*, and are on the whole a peaceable and well-disposed section of the population, subsisting chiefly by agriculture. In physique they resemble their neighbours, the Gondals, with whom they intermarry freely.

The Janjúahs are descendants of Rajpút immigrants from Chataragh. They trace their descent from the Rája Mal who is said to have built the fort of Malot in the Jhelum district, and state that the members of the tribe found in this district are the progeny of his great grandson Sunpál. At one time masters of nearly the whole of the Salt Range, this tribe has now been reduced by the aggressions of the Awáns to the occupancy of a few villages, mostly situated at the foot of those hills. In this district the only remnants of their former extensive possessions are five estates in the eastern corner of the Khusháb *talukah*. Their spirit appears to have been crushed by continued misfortune, and they are now a listless apathetic people. At the same time they pride themselves on the purity of their blood, and will not allow their daughters to marry out of their own tribe. The Chief, or Rája as he is styled, of this tribe, is Sultán Sharaf of Katha. (For a further account, see Jhelum Gazetteer.)

The Awáns and Khokhars both claim to be descended from Awáns and Khokhars. Kub Sháh, who is himself said to have been a descendant of Ali, the son-in-law of Muhammad. The date of immigration of the former tribe is not known, but was probably quite recent, as when the Emperor Bábár passed through the Salt Range, the Janjúahs occupied it almost exclusively, and he makes no mention of any such tribe as the Awáns, who are now in possession of nearly the whole of that portion which lies in this district, as well as the greater part of the plains at its base. The Awáns are a brave, high-spirited race, but withal exceedingly indolent. In point of character there is a little in them to admire; headstrong and irascible to an unusual degree, and prone to keeping alive old feuds, they are constantly in hot water, their quarrels leading to affrays not unfrequently ending in bloodshed. As a set-off against this, it must be allowed that their manners are frank and engaging, and although they cannot boast of the truthfulness of other hill tribes, they are remarkably free from crime. The Khokhars, judging from their peculiar social customs, are of Hindu origin; they are found scattered all over the Panjáb and hold land in every part of this district. The tribe has become split up into innumerable sections, among which the Nizamáns of the Kalowál *taluka*, notorious for their thieving propensities and generally lawless character, are the only powerful branch. (For a further account of the Khokhars and Awáns, see Jhelum Gazetteer.)

The Bilochees are the last of the tribes that require special notice. These are the descendants of immigrants from Kech Mekran on the shores of the Persian Gulf, where the tribe appears to have been settled previous to the Muhammadan invasion of Persia. The families found in this district are probably descended from the founders of the three Deras, Mallik Sohrab, and his

Chapter III, C.
Tribes and Castes.

Janjúahs.

Awáns and Khokhars.

The Bilochees.

Chapter III, D. three sons Ismail, Gházi, and Fateh Khún, who migrating from their native country in A. D. 1460, took service under Sultán Husen, Governor of Multán, and obtained from him the charge of the country along our present Frontier. The possessions of the tribe are situated in a circle round Sahiwal, which was founded by one of its Chiefs. Another branch has its head-quarters at Khusháb.

The Sháhpur Billoches, 2,229 returned their tribe as Jatoi, 1,350 as Kundi, 1,053 as Lasharí, and 402 as Koráí in the Census of 1881.

Village Communities and Tenures. The mercantile castes do not call for separate notice, as they differ in no respect from their fellow caste men in other parts of the provinces. In the Census of 1881 the chief tribes returned were as follows:—

Khatris. Bunjáhi 6,009 ; Khokhrán 2,810 ; Morhotra 1,726 ; Chárzati 1,263 ; Kapúr 903 ; Dhúighar 506 ; Khamá 458 ; Bahri 44.

Aroras. Uttarádhi 20,193 ; Dahra 9,482 ; Dakhana 5,348.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure, as returned in quinquennial Table No. XXXIII, of the Administration Report for 1878-79. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures ; the primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions follow another form which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. The prevailing tenure is what is commonly known as *khás-pachára* where the extent of possession is the measure of each man's rights ; and if reference be had to the past history of the country, and the system of revenue management under the Sikhs, to say nothing of the vicissitudes to which societies and families are subject, even under the best ordered Government, it will not be a subject for surprise that such should have been the result.

Colonel Davies thus describes the causes which led to this state of affairs:—

" On the dissolution of the Mughal empire, anarchy for a long time prevailed, during which the country became the theatre of incessant fighting of tribe with tribe, varied by the incursions of the Afghans. To this succeeded the *grinding* rule of the Sikhs, when, as has been very truly remarked, ' the tendency was rather to abandon rights, symbols more of misery than of benefit, than to contend for their exact definition and enjoyment,' and if these causes of themselves were insufficient to weaken the strong ties that bind the peasant to the soil of his fathers, the occurrence at times of famines and other calamities would concur in bringing about this result. Nor are these the only causes that would tend to disturb the original equilibrium, even where this had ever existed. Our every-day experience tells us that the several members of a family are not equally gifted. One is provident, another reckless ; one is pushing and active, while another is altogether wanting in energy. It is needless to say, that while the former passes unreathed

Causes that led to this state of property.

through ordeals such as have been described above, the latter is forced to succumb to them. Again under such a rule as the Sikhs, the former would probably succeed in making a friend of the ruler for the time being, and with his assistance would extend his possessions at the expense of his weaker brethren ; and be it remembered *there was ordinarily no redress* should he presume on his influence to do this.

"Among all the villages of the district, 66 only retain the communal form of tenure, all the others having lost, or retained only in the shape of vague forms, even the relation that exists in *patti* villages between ancestral right and the possession of land. In some few villages the relative rights of the members of the community according to the family genealogy are well known and could be accurately stated, but were found at the time of Settlement not to have been acted upon for years, even for generations, and could not therefore be restored, the existing status being taken as the basis of operations. The distribution of the revenue among the members of a village, accordingly, is regulated solely by possession, each man paying upon the land held by him at rates varying according to the nature of the soil. In the *thal* and *bār* tracts, a portion of the revenue was thrown upon the cattle of the village, but this forms the only exception common to all the district, to the rule as above stated. In the Bhera *tahsil* during the Sikh rule, a house tax, called *būhā*, of Rs. 2 used to be collected from all the residents in the village ; and this custom is still retained, a portion of the revenue being thrown by the people upon the houses and raised by a house rate, thus reducing the sum to be levied by grazing and soil rates."

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of tenure, and also gives details for large estates and for Government grants and similar tenures. The figures are taken from the quinquennial table prepared for the Administration Report of 1878-79. The accuracy of the figures is, however, exceedingly doubtful ; indeed land tenures assume so many and such complex forms in the Panjab, that it is impossible to classify them successfully under a few general headings. From the remarks just quoted, it will be readily conceived that proprietary rights were somewhat ill-defined at the Regular Settlement ; and that innumerable claims were set up, based upon the tradition of ancestral rights, but unsupported by recent possession. The manner in which these were dealt with is thus described by Colonel Davies :—

"The causes already described had combined to produce the state of things described, and the status, *as found to have existed for a long period*, was accepted as the basis of our future operations, both in our judicial decisions, and in the preparation of the record of rights and liabilities. Pedigree tables had been drawn out in the first instance ; but it was found that although the genealogies of the village communities were well known, and there were often *tarafs* and *patti*s, or as they are called *varkis*, yet these had not been acted on for several generations. Possession in no way corresponded with shares, and the land of proprietors of one nominal division were often found mixed up with those of another. The State dues during the Sikh times were, as before explained, taken in kind by *kankut* or *batāi* ; while items of common income, such as *dharat*, *kamīāna*, and in the *thal*, *pivi*, were appropriated by the headmen on the pretence of defraying village expenses. Since annexation the revenue has for the most part been paid on holdings by a *bighā* rate, or by a distribution on ploughs, &c."

The table on the next page gives the details of proprietary and tenancy holdings as they stood at the Regular Settlement,

Chapter III, D.
Village Communities and Tenures.

Existing state of tenures.

Proprietary tenures.

Statistics of proprietary and tenancy holdings.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1878-79, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in 1881-82. But the accuracy of both sets of figures is probably doubtful; indeed it is impossible to state general rent-rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district. The subjoined table gives particulars as to the number and status of tenants, and the size of the holdings of each class as ascertained at the Settlement of 1865:—

	No. of holdings.	Average area of holdings.
<i>Tenants having right of occupancy.</i>		
1. Paying at revenue rate only	4	Acres. 9
2. Do. do but something in excess as rent in cash	2,065	6
3. Do. at grain rates	661	49
Total Tenants with rights of occupancy.	2,730	
Cultivating tenants with no permanent right. (i.e., tenants holding at will)	12,200	177

The term "hereditary cultivators" was not understood in the district of Sháhpur for several years after the annexation of the Punjab; but enquiries showed that there were, in the river valleys at any rate, persons who, though they had no claim to proprietary title, asserted a claim to cultivate the land in their possession, subject to the payment of a rent more favourable than was demanded from the mere tenant-at-will. These men had acquired their rights by one of two ways. They had either broken up the waste land, (generally land on the banks of the river) and were called *Abádkárán* or *Banjarshígáfán*, or they had sunk a well on the land which they cultivated, or had cleared out and put into working order an old well, situated in the land they tilled.

Chapter III, D.

Village Communities and Tenures.

Tenants and rent.

Tenant right.

In either case, it was the custom to allow tenants of the above description a certain amount of indulgence, compared with ordinary tenants, in taking their rents by *batáí* or *kankút*. If the prevalent rate for *batáí* was equal division between landlord and tenant, than the *Abádkár* or *Banjar*, *Shígáf* was allowed to deduct out of the crop a certain portion, varying from one-quarter to one-half of it. In dealing with cases of this description, the Settlement Officer records that he first enquired whether the cultivator asserted any proprietary claim. As a rule, such a claim was rarely raised. Among Muhammadans, the idea of hereditary property is very strong, and a man whose family has been one hundred years out of possession, is still popularly recognised as the owner of what once belonged to his ancestors. Generally speaking then, the cultivator at once answered that he was not the owner, but that such a person was. The privileges which either party possessed were then enquired into, and it was generally found that the cultivator, after paying his share of the revenue, enjoyed whatever profit was left on his cultivation, giving only five per cent. on his quota of the Government demand ordinarily in grain or kind to the nominal proprietor; but the

Chapter III, D. cultivator was not allowed to transfer his rights by sale, or gift or mortgage.

Village Communities and Tenures.

Tenant right.

The circumstances which produced this condition of affairs had next to be considered, and if it turned out that the cultivator had been enjoying favourable terms for such a length of time as to render it a matter of moral certainty that he must have reimbursed himself both the principal and the interest of his original outlay of capital or labour, then it was settled that, for the future, he required nothing beyond a recognition of his right to occupy the land he held, subject to a fixed money payment, which in such cases was assessed at an increase of from 35 to 40 per cent, including extra cesses, on the revenue demand of the land. Excluding cesses, 25 per cent. is the highest rate of *malikana* paid by any tenant. In those instances where it was found that the expenditure incurred by the cultivator had not been made good to him, a certain number of years, varying with the circumstances of each case, was fixed, during which he was to pay at certain favourable rates, and after the lapse of the period so fixed, his rent was to be brought up to the standard of similarly circumstanced cultivators. But it was only in the *beli* or *raikh* land that an arrangement of the above nature could be made. Where the land was dependent for its irrigation on a well, other circumstances had to be taken into account, not only the original outlay, but the annual expenditure for wear and tear of the well and of its machinery. And as it is generally a very unsatisfactory arrangement to allow the landlord to undertake the repairs of the well, the cultivator always had the option given him of doing so; and, if he consented, then he was allowed to pay at revenue rates with an increase of from 12 to 18 per cent., which increase went to the proprietor as *hug-malikana*. The difference between the 12 or 18 per cent., and the 50 per cent. of profits, remained with the cultivator to enable him to make necessary repairs; the proportion of the profits thus made over to the cultivator, varying of course with the nature of the repairs which he would probably be called on to execute. If the cultivator refused to undertake the execution of his own repairs, he received but a small share of the profits, the bulk going to the landlord, who was in future to be responsible for keeping the well in fair working order.

Rates of rent.

Out of 1,132 hereditary occupants of well lands, 564, or about half, keep the well in repair themselves, the proprietors being responsible for the repair of the wells irrigating the lands held by the remaining 568 cultivators.

Of the former—

215 pay from 5 to 10 per cent.
211 " " 12 to 14 "
14 " " 20 to 25 "
90 " a lump sum in cash.
4 " varying rates in kind.

In the latter case—

91 pay from 5 to 10 per cent.
88 " " 12 to 18 "
21 " " 20 to 25 "
71 " a lump sum in cash.
297 " varying rates in kind.

In addition to the above there are a few who, with the consent of the proprietors, are excused all payment on account of *malikana*.

In certain tracts old cultivators record as proprietors These remarks do not apply to the *Kâlowâl tahâil*, or the *Zail Mûsâ* received by transfer from Gûjrât. In those parts of the district, the heavy assessments of the Sikh times had quite

trampled out proprietary rights, and artizans, and village servants, Chapter III, D. and proprietors, all paid the Government revenue by an equal rate, Village Communities and Tenures. levied, generally speaking, on the number of ploughs employed by each man. In these parts of the district, cultivators of long standing were recorded as owners of the land in their occupancy and they paid their revenue at the village revenue rates. They had of course no proprietary title in any of the village lands, except what was in their actual possession as cultivators.

In the Salt Range and Tivána *thal*, tenant rights were of Tenant rights in the comparatively small importance, for the number of non-proprietary Salt Range and *thal*. occupants of land here is very inferior to the number in the other portions of the district. The hills and the *muhár* are the only tracts where cultivation is carried on to any large extent, and these divisions are held by brotherhoods of cultivating proprietors of the Awán tribe, with scarcely an outsider among them. The only exceptions are where whole villages belong to saintly characters, of which there are three in the Salt Range, and, in the *muhár*, the villages owned by the Janjúá tribe. In the former, almost the entire cultivation is in the hands of non-proprietors, the proprietors taking their rents by *batái* at easy rates, usually a third of the produce. In the latter, the Janjúá proprietors, through apathy and indifference, have allowed not only rights of occupancy to grow up, but have given opportunity to men of other tribes to creep in and supplant them in the proprietorship of a greater part of the lands still left to them by the Awáns. Of course these last are proprietors of their own holdings only, and have no share in the common land or common profits.

Disputes concerning water are a most fertile source of riots and affray, more especially in the Salt Range. The two forms which irrigation from hill-torrents assumes will be described in Chapter IV, Section A. These rights were most carefully ascertained and recorded at the regular Settlement.

Irrigation rights.

The issue was much the same in every case, viz., whether the right to irrigate by either of the two recognized modes existed, and had been enjoyed continuously or not; or whether the claimant's land had only received water by accidental overflow (called *uchhdí*) when, the stream bursting its banks, all came in for a share; and be it remarked that the distinction here indicated is a most important one, as those who have the right to divert the drainage into their fields benefit by every shower, however small, while those who are not included in this category only obtain water after heavy and continuous rain.

As a matter of course, trees growing in lands held in severalty belong to the shareholder in whose land they stand, and the same with regard to trees within the village site, with exception to such as are to be found within the courtyards of houses inhabited by any of the village servants, who have only rights in trees of their own planting. The rule regarding trees growing on the boundaries of two adjacent fields, everywhere except in the Salt Range and *muhár*, is, that they shall belong half to the owner of each field; but in the tracts named it is laid down that trees in such positions are the exclusive property of the owner of the field on the higher level:

Rights in trees.

where taken, it goes to defray some portion of the village expenses. Chapter III, D.
Pivi is the income from fees paid by travelling merchants for watering their cattle at the wells in the *thal*. The fee is nowhere else levied; the proceeds, as in the case of *dharat*, go to reduce the *malba*. The amount is never very great.

These are only levied in the *bār* and *thal* villages. In the former tract, the cattle of outsiders grazing in the village common lands, are included in the annual distribution of the sum assessed on cattle; and in the latter, such cattle, if allowed to graze in the village pasture grounds, are charged at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being devoted to reducing the quota payable by the cattle of the village itself.

Village Communities and Tenures.

Grazing dues.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in the several *tahsils* of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner.

Village Officers.

Tahsil.	Village Headmen.
Bars	631
Shahpur	453
Blockb	277
Total	1,361

The village headmen receive a remuneration of five per cent. on the land revenue of their village, which they collect in addition to the Government demand for which they are responsible. Of the headmen above enumerated, 51 persons enjoy *svāiād poshi*, or *zamīndārī* *ināmā* of different amounts in the district.

Colonel Davies thus describes the state of affairs he found to exist at the Regular Settlement, and his consequent action:—

Village headmen.

"During the progress of the measurement, and while I was collecting data for the assessment, it became known to me that when the first Summary Settlement was made, the old Sikh headmen, never having paid revenue in cash before, and fearing that they might be held liable in their persons and property on every, even the slightest, occasion of default, thinking to strengthen their position thereby, had associated with themselves a number of their relatives, and in fact any one who would join them in bearing an unknown and much dreaded responsibility. Inquiry also showed that during the Sikh rule, while each principal section in a village might have its managing head, yet there was usually but one man who was recognized by the local authority as the headman of the village, and who received the lion's share of the *inām* allowed as a deduction from the collections and is now known as the *ināmdār*. Under these circumstances it seemed to me that good policy and justice alike counselled a restoration of the former status, for it is clearly our object to have in these men a class which shall be possessed of some weight and authority in the country, and for this an income which shall place each individual above the necessity of himself tilling the ground is a *sine qua non*; at the same time there were no long established rights to induce me to hesitate before applying the axe to an evil which was of comparatively recent growth."

In all large villages where many outsiders had obtained a proprietary footing, an additional five per cent. has been imposed on

Chapter III, D. the reason for this is obvious, as the high embankments in these parts of the district, rendered necessary by the requirements of the peculiar system of irrigation in vogue, are raised at the expense of the owner of the land benefiting by them.

Alluvion and diluvion.

The local custom in respect of land lost in and gained from the river varies on the banks of the Jhelum and Chenâb. The custom which from time immemorial has been in force on the Jhelum, is that locally known by the name of *wârpîr banna*. The words literally mean "a boundary on either side," but the phrase is commonly accepted to mean, that the river is not considered as a boundary at all; that the original area of the estate is alone looked to, and, whether in the bed of the river or out of it, the lands comprised within those limits remain for ever a part of the estate. The rule probably had its origin in the fickle nature of the stream, and was devised by the original settlers on both banks for their mutual protection. However this may be, there is no doubt of the existence of the custom. It was clearly established by enquiry from the *zamindârs* of villages on both banks of the river, and is further attested by the fact that a large proportion of estates so situated have land on both banks. Nothing can be theoretically fairer than the rule, and no great difficulty is experienced in its practical application, now that a regular survey and settlement of the estates on both banks have been made. On the Chenâb, on the other hand, enquiry showed that in such cases the usage known as the *sikandri hadd* law has always prevailed. This rule is precisely that prescribed for observance in Sections IV and V of Regulation XI of 1825, *viz.*, that where land is gained by gradual accession, it shall be considered an increment to the estate to whose land it is thus annexed, but not when the river by a sudden change of course transfers a portion of land from one estate to another, without destroying the identity of the land so removed.

Items of miscellaneous income.

The village dues consist of the following:—(1.) *Kamidna*; (2.) fees on saltpetre manufactories; 3, *Dharat*; (4.) *Pivi*. Each of these require a few words to be said in explanation. *Kamidna* is, as its name imports, the fund formed of fees paid by village artisans and other non-proprietors for the privilege of residing and exercising their calling in towns and villages. It is paid everywhere except in the *Bâr*, where a portion of the revenue is distributed over houses. In towns the proceeds are appropriated by Government; in villages they are at the disposal of the proprietary communities, and are devoted either to paying the *chaukidâr* or defraying village expenses. In villages within the boundaries of which *ahlis*, or saltpetro mounds, exist in favourable situations, parties manufacturing the salt pay a fee of one rupee per pan for the privilege of digging earth. The proceeds of this source of common income is divided by the proprietor rateably on their revenue liabilities. *Dharat* is the sum which is paid for the monopoly of weighing by the party who succeeds in obtaining the appointment of village *dharwâî*, or weighman, he himself taking something, as his wage, from both seller and buyer. During the Sikh times this was one of the many perquisites of the village representatives; now,

where taken, it goes to defray some portion of the village expenses. *Pitî* is the income from fees paid by travelling merchants for watering their cattle at the wells in the *thal*. The fee is nowhere else levied; the proceeds, as in the case of *dharat*, go to reduce the *malba*. The amount is never very great.

These are only levied in the *bar* and *thal* villages. In the former tract, the cattle of outsiders grazing in the village common lands, are included in the annual distribution of the sum assessed on cattle; and in the latter, such cattle, if allowed to graze in the village pasture grounds, are charged at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being devoted to reducing the quota payable by the cattle of the village itself.

Grazing dues.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in the several *tahsils* of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner.

Village Officers.

Each village, or, in large villages, each main division of the village, having one or more, who represent their clients in their dealings with the Government, are responsible for the collection of revenue, and are bound to assist in the prevention and detection of crime. No *zailliâr* or chief headmen are appointed in this district.

The village headmen receive a remuneration of five per cent. on the land revenue of their village, which they collect in addition to the Government demand for which they are responsible. Of the headmen above enumerated, 51 persons enjoy *ayfaid poshi*, or *samindârî* *inâms* of different amounts in the district.

Colonel Davies thus describes the state of affairs he found to exist at the Regular Settlement, and his consequent action:—

Village headmen.

"During the progress of the measurement, and while I was collecting data for the assessment, it became known to me that when the first Summary Settlement was made, the old Sikh headmen, never having paid revenue in cash before, and fearing that they might be held liable in their persons and property on every, even the slightest, occasion of default, thinking to strengthen their position thereby, had associated with themselves a number of their relatives, and in fact any one who would join them in bearing an unknown and much dreaded responsibility. Inquiry also showed that during the Sikh rule, while each principal section in a village might have its managing head, yet there was usually but one man who was recognized by the local authority as the headman of the village, and who received the lion's share of the *inâm* allowed as a deduction from the collections and is now known as the *inâdar*. Under these circumstances it seemed to me that good policy and justice alike counselled a restoration of the former status, for it is clearly our object to have in these men a class which shall be possessed of some weight and authority in the country, and for this an income which shall place each individual above the necessity of himself tilling the ground is a *cavea qua non*; at the same time there were no long established rights to induce me to hesitate before applying the ax to an evil which was of comparatively recent growth."

In all large villages where many outsiders had obtained a proprietary footing, an additional five per cent. has been imposed on

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Village Communities and Tenures.

Village headmen.

Village menials.

Agricultural labourers.

these "proprietors of their holdings," the proceeds going to the most influential *lambardár*. Doubts were, at the time, expressed if the doubling of the allowance was legal; but in reality there was nothing novel in the measure, the extra allowance being in fact identical with the *wârisdâna* imposed on the same class in the Jhelam and Râwali-pindi districts; but the amount being small, it was thought preferable to confer it on the only member of the community who under the Sikh revenue system had enjoyed proprietary rights, than to fritter it away by dividing it among the whole proprietary body.

Village servants consist of the village carpenter, blacksmith, shoemaker, potter, barber and sweeper. Each has his appointed work, and in return for his services, receives certain fixed dues from the proprietors at each harvest, which dues of course vary in proportion to the work that is required of each servant; for instance, in the tracts where tillage is mainly dependent on wells, the potters receive from three to four *pais*, equivalent to from 20 to 25 *seers* of grain, at each harvest; on the other hand, in the regions where artificial irrigation is unknown they receive nothing. In the same way, the rates of remuneration to the other village servants vary according to the demand on their labour, influenced by the peculiar circumstances of each division of the district.

The pay of a permanent agricultural labourer is always in kind. He receives generally $2\frac{1}{2}$ maunds out of every 100 maunds of produce. Taking wheat as being worth on an average Rs. 2-8 per maund, the labourer's earnings would represent Rs. 6-4 per 100 maunds of wheat grown on the land in which he had worked. The condition of such labourers has improved since annexation; for though the rate of payment in kind remains the same, yet the vast increase in the production of marketable commodities and the consequent increase of the demand for hired labour, and the high money value always obtainable, has at least doubled the actual value of the grain payments.

It is customary in this district to employ hired field labourers for weeding, reaping, threshing, sifting and stacking. They are paid in cash and kind as follows:—

For weeding, Rs. 2 per acre (in cash).

For reaping, 1 sheaf out of 21 (in kind).

For threshing and cleaning, 4 *seers* of corn per day, and a cake.

These men are the sweepers, carpenters, ironsmiths, potters and shoemakers who, when not employed in field labour, work at their trade.

The number employed on field labour in this district is estimated at 4 per cent. of the total population.

These men are as well-to-do as the poor agriculturists who cultivate their own lands, as regards indebtedness and their ability to subsist with fair ease from harvest to harvest in average years. They subsist on their earnings by working in the fields and at their handicrafts, and rarely open a credit account with a village trader.

The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

The last two lines of Table No. XVI show the number of persons holding service grants from the village, and the area so held.

Petty village grantees.

The figures are extraordinarily small ; but they refer only to land held free of revenue, which is by no means the only form which these grants assume. Sometimes the land is leased to the grantee at a favourable rent or on condition of payment of revenue only ; sometimes the owner cultivates and pays the revenue, making over the produce to the grantee ; while occasionally the grant consists of the rights of property in the land, which, subject to the usual incidents, such as responsibility for revenue and the like, vest in the person performing certain specified services at such time and for so long as he performs them. These grants are most commonly made to village menials and watchmen on condition of, or in payment for, services rendered, to attendants at temples, mosques, shrines, or village rest-houses so long as they perform the duties of the post, and for maintenance of monasteries, holy men, teachers at religious schools, and the like.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land ; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA show the operations of the Registration Department ; and Table No. XXXIX, the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect ; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious ; and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. There are no large bankers in the district, but every village has its petty money-lender, generally of the Khatri caste, to whom the people are largely indebted. The Deputy Commissioner reports that "the peasantry are generally in debt. This is due partly to a succession of several seasons of drought, but chiefly to the very improvident and extravagant habits of the agricultural classes in respect of marriage expenses, useless establishments of retainers, dress and the like. It is also due partly to the high interest obtained by money-lenders for loans, for which the rate without security is often as high as Rs. 6-4-0 per cent. per month, or Rs. 75-12 per annum. On mortgages the rate varies with the nature of the security from one to two per cent per mensem."

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Village Communities and Tenures.

Petty village
grantees.

Poverty or wealth
of the proprietors.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE, AND LIVE-STOCK.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture, and Live-Stock.

General statistics of agriculture.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation and for Government waste land; while the rain fall is shown in Tables Nos. III, IIIA, and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates. Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples, and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section D.

Agricultural tracts.

The agricultural conditions and practice of the district naturally differ from one to another of the physical tracts into which the district may be divided. These are five in number: (1) the river circle, including the low lying lands on either side of the Jhelum and Chenâb, which, where not actually inundated by the floods, have the subsoil water within a moderate distance of the surface; (2) the hill circle, consisting of the Salt Range and its valleys; (3) the *mohâr* or plains lying immediately at the foot of the Salt Range, and receiving water from the streams which issue thence; (4) the *dandî* or intermediate tract which separates the *mohâr* from the great pasture grounds; (5) the *bâr* and *thal*, or the great steppes lying between the rivers.

The river circle.

The agriculture of the Shâhpur riverain differs little from that of the corresponding tract in Jhang, which is very fully described in the Gazetteer of that district. Thus, though the circle includes the greater part of the whole cultivation, it will not be necessary to describe it minutely here. The soils are broadly divided into three strips; the *hithâr* or alluvial tract immediately bordering on the river, and annually fertilized by its floods; the *utâr* or high lands fringing the central plateaux, but in which the nearness of the water due to the proximity of the river, renders irrigation from wells possible, or to which the river water itself is conducted by means of inundation canals; and the *nakkâ* or slope which separates the *hithâr* from the *utâr*, and is intermediate in physical character as well as in position. The riverain of the left bank of the Jhelum is distinctly superior to that of the right bank; the inundations are less extensive, the soil is of poorer quality, and so much of it as is not actually flooded by the river is too often so impregnated with salts as to be unfit for cultivation.

The hill tract.

A knowledge of the constitution of the Salt Range would tell us, apart from actual experience, how fertile must its soil be; for

it is well known that the rich loams of England, and its best wheat soils, are formed by the gradual admixture of the constituents of limestone and sandstone-rocks, with clay, where these are found in contact; and the range here abounds in all these ingredients of a rich soil. Among them, lime prevails largely; and to its presence is doubtless owing the unusually large average yield per acre of wheat, obtained as the result of numerous experiments in different parts of these hills. In appearance the soil closely resembles the alluvium deposited by the rivers, but is perhaps a degree lighter. It preserves the same character throughout this portion of the range, the only marked variation being in the flat table land to the east about Jábá and Pail, where it is more sandy and less fertile. But although, speaking in general terms, the soil must be pronounced very fertile, yet its productive powers differ greatly in the several villages, and even in the same village, according as its situation places it more or less in the way of receiving the fertilizing deposits brought down by the hill torrents after rain. Through the area of one village will flow three or four distinct streams, laden with the riches gathered during a course of many miles, while another will be dependent for its supply of moisture on the surface drainage from a few low hills alone. The former will be able, on all the land within the immediate influence of the stream, to raise a double crop, each as good as the one that preceded it, and so on from year to year; while the lands of the other, after yielding an inferior crop, will have to lie fallow for a year to recover strength. It is this state of things which has led to the popular classification of soils into *hail*, or land directly irrigated by a torrent; *mairá*, or that which receives only the surface drainage from a few low hillocks, or land lying above it; and *rakar* soil which is dependent for its moisture on the rains and dews of heaven alone. The texture of the soil called *mairá*, is, as a rule, looser and lighter than *hail*, while *rakar* is characterized by being more stony than either. The fields are laid out in gradually descending terraces, surrounded each with an embankment or *band*, till the lowest level is reached. To those who have seen much of this kind of cultivation, it is not difficult to distinguish at a glance the more valuable *hail* from the inferior *mairá* lands. The former are, as a rule, near to some torrent, and to enable them to benefit fully from the large volumes of water that come rushing down the drainage channels after heavy rain, the *bands* that surround the fields must be both high and strong; where this is the case, the soil becomes well saturated, and at the same time receives a rich deposit of alluvium. The *bands* of the *mairá* fields not being required to withstand any great pressure of water, are much lower; so that if there were no other guide, the class to which any particular field belongs might be roughly judged of by the size of the embankment surrounding it.

There are two methods of distribution of the water of the hill torrents in use: first, by sharers, the right to the water often residing exclusively in certain families; secondly, by means of dams thrown across the beds of torrents. In the former case, spurs are thrown out, and so made as to carry into the sharer's private duct,

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torrents.

Chapter IV, A. as much of the entire volume of water brought down by the stream as is due to his share. In the latter case, when the person entitled to a share in the water has irrigated his fields, the *band* is cut away by those whose lands lie lower down the stream; and water in this comparatively dry climate is of so much value, that not a drop of the precious element is ever allowed to be wasted, or to pass off into the fields of those not entitled to participate in its benefits. There is little or no artificial irrigation in these hills. There are, it is true, a few wells; but they are invariably made over to *maliás* or market gardeners, who content themselves with growing a few acres of vegetables round each. For the rest, the soil is dependent for its supply of moisture on the periodical rains alone. All that need be said further in the matter of natural irrigation is, that the Sún valley is by far the best supplied; the high hills to the south and west act as vast receivers, and the rain falling on them is discharged through numerous channels, in large volumes, of which the villages along those sides monopolize the greater part. The estates lying in the centre and on the opposite (north) side of the valley are less favoured in this respect, and their lands are, as a consequence, not so fertile. In the next rank comes the Khabakki valley; to this succeed the smaller valleys scattered throughout the broken ridges on the southern side of the range; and, last of all, at a considerable distance, follow the flat tablelands of the eastern division.

The Muhár tract.

The *Muhár* is a fertile strip of alluvial land from three to four miles in width which slopes rapidly away from the hills and is closely intersected by the beds of torrents. It is succeeded by level plains, in places barren owing to saline impregnation; but elsewhere consisting of good culturable land. The soil in this tract is a stiff marl, only second in fertility to the best soils of the Salt Range. With a good supply of water, the crops grown on it are splendid; but then the fact has to be borne in mind that the actual supply is both precarious and insufficient. In one respect, however, the villages here possess an immense advantage over those of the Salt Range. They have land more than sufficient for their requirements, for, whereas the cultivable area in the hills is only a seventh of the area actually under tillage, the land available for this purpose here is more than double the land already taken up for cultivation. Thus the *zamíndárs* of this circle are enabled to change the site of their cultivation nearly every year, and to allow the abandoned land to lie fallow at least two years, and such is the custom. The quality and texture of the soil may be said to be practically the same throughout the circle, the only circumstance which here, as in the Salt Range, lends a varying value to it in the several estates, is the greater or less supply of drainage which it receives. The division of soils into *nd'addár* and *ravliédár* has also reference to the same circumstance. The former is the *hail* of the plains, the soil which is directly irrigated from one of the torrents; the latter that which is dependent on the more precarious and scanty drainage from the slopes of hills, or plots of waste land above it. The style of cultivation here is almost the same as in the Salt Range, the only difference being that the slope

Soils and irrigation age irrigation in the mohár. The division of soils into *nd'addár* and *ravliédár* has also reference to the same circumstance. The former is the *hail* of the plains, the soil which is directly irrigated from one of the torrents; the latter that which is dependent on the more precarious and scanty drainage from the slopes of hills, or plots of waste land above it. The style of cultivation here is almost the same as in the Salt Range, the only difference being that the slope

Chapter IV, A. above 60 feet to the *bár* and *thal*. The irrigation from hill streams has already been noticed at page 59.

Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live-Stock. Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts, and ploughs in each *taluk* of the district as returned in 1878-79. The following Agricultural implements are the necessary implements for a small holding, with their average values :—

ccs.

Plough	1	0	0
Panjálf yoke	0	8	0
Khopah, blinkers	0	1	0
Kahi, spade	1	0	0
Dátri, reaping hook	0	2	0
Rambá, small spade	0	4	0
Kulhári, hatchet	0	8	0
Náli, drill for depositing seed	0	8	0
Chhaj, basket for carrying manure	0	8	0
Tarangá, sack	0	4	0
Karrá, kind of spade for levelling	0	8	0
Sohágá, harrow-log	0	12	0
Jandrá, spike harrow	0	4	0
Karráh, spud	0	6	0
<hr/>									
Well necessities	6	12	0
One pair bullocks	61	11	0
<hr/>									
Grand Total	118	4	0

Manure and rotation of crops.

The following description of the use of manure and the system of rotation of crops as practised in the district, was furnished for the Famine Report of 1879 (page 248) :—

	Ac Constantly manured.	Ac Occasionally manured.	Ac Not manured.	Total.	Percentage which bears two or more crops annually
Irrigated land	2	3	95	100	2
Unirrigated land	100	100	1
Total	1	2	97	100	1

yearly, or every second or third year according to the quality of the soil. As a rule, unmanured irrigated land is allowed to be fallow for six months, i.e., only one crop is taken from it. It is then ploughed four times and sown; but land unirrigated and not manured lies fallow for a year, and sometimes longer, when, if there is a timely rain, it is ploughed up from four to six times in this district."

Thus the ordinary means by which the productive powers of land are economized, increased, and renewed, (1) rotation of crops, (2) manuring, and (3) fallows, are all to a certain degree practised in this district. Along the rivers nature allows of no interference, but makes and mars as she wills. As soon as the crop is cut, the river rising inundates the land, and when it retires it is found that a deposit of sand, or one of alluvium, of more or less richness has been left. If fit for cultivation at all, the land is practically new, and as such requires no extraneous help to increase its fertility, and the crop that is most valuable (wheat), is grown year after year

"The table in the margin shows the proportion of the cultivated land manured yearly, constantly, and occasionally, and not manured at all.

"The average weight of manure used per acre per annum on land constantly manured is 160 maunds. On land occasionally manured, the manure used per acre is also 160 maunds; such lands require manure

without intermission. But on passing out of the range of the river floods, and entering the tract where tillage depends on artificial irrigation, the case becomes altogether altered. Here we have a number of fixed circles (with wells as their centres) beyond the circumference of which cultivation cannot ordinarily pass, and the area being limited, each of the aids to agriculture enumerated above is successively brought into play, to obtain from the soil as large a return as possible. Suppose, for example, that fifty acres of land are attached to a well: of this twenty acres will be sown with spring crops, the same extent of land lying fallow, together with ten acres sown during the preceding autumn harvest. After the spring crop is cut, half of the same land will be sown with autumn crops, and for the next spring harvest there will be the twenty acres which have been lying fallow. This will leave half the land lately under spring crops, and ten acres of the previous autumn harvest, to form the fallow, which will receive repeated ploughings and manurings, till its turn comes round to be cultivated again. By this means each plot of land receives rest alternately, once for three, and the next time for four harvests. On a well of this size the proportions in which the ordinary crops are grown would be nearly as follows:—

Rabi	Wheat	14 acres.
	Barley	2 "
(Spring)	Poppy	1 "
	Turnips for feeding bullocks	3 "
					<hr/>
			Total	20	"
Kharif	Cotton	3 acres.
	Chhīnā	1 "
(Autumn)	Bājrā	1 "
	Charrī for bullocks	5 "
			Total	10	<hr/>

The general rule to be deduced from this statement is that an autumn crop may, and often does, follow a spring crop in the same land, but the converse of this is never seen.

In the Salt Range, the soil is ordinarily too rich to require a lengthened repose. The tract within the immediate influence of the hill torrents, called *hail*, like the alluvial tracts bordering the rivers, is fertilized at short intervals by the deposits brought down by the streams, and yields double crops in never-ending succession; and for the remainder, experience has shown that a fallow extending over twelve months, during which the surface is repeatedly turned up by the plough, is amply sufficient to restore it to full vigour. The invariable rule in these lands is that an autumn follows a spring crop, and then the land is allowed to lie fallow for a whole year. The *zamīndārs* say that the *bājrā*, which here usually follows wheat, restores the productive powers of the soil: but this must not be understood too literally; they mean, probably, that *bājrā* is the one crop of all others which least unsuits the lands to produce wheat; and here experience has doubtless taught them aright. It may be added, that the use of manure is little known throughout this part of the district. In the plains along the base of the hills

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**Manure and rotation
of crops.**

land is so plentiful, that the site of cultivation is shifted very often : three years fallow succeed three years cultivation, but the crops are nearly always the same, wheat and gram for the spring, and *bájrá*, with perhaps a little cotton and pulses, for the autumn crop. The only exception to this rule is in the *náladár* land, the *hail* of the plains, which from being twice in the year covered with a rich deposit of alluvium brought down by the torrents after rain, is enabled to produce annually two crops without requiring any rest. Here also the use of manure is ignored, nature having provided a better substitute.

Principal staples.

Crop.	1880-81.	1881-82
Kangri	43	298
Chin	5,991	5,116
Mátar	81	99
Mish (Urd)	310	345
Núng	3,670	4,103
Másoor	981	795
Coriander	4	7
Chillies	82	8
Other drugs and spices	19	2
Linseed	36	53
Mustard	12,953	13,153
Ti	1,765	1,940
Tara Mírá	4,012	2,852
Hemp	210	190
Other crops	678	498

Crops.

staple produce is wheat for the spring harvest and *bájrá* (spiked millet) and cotton for the autumn crop. Wheat predominates so greatly as to cover in average years little less than half the entire cultivated area. *Bájrá* covering about 20 per cent. is the next most extensively grown crop ; after which follow at long intervals cotton, covering 10 per cent., gram (*Cicer arietinum*), barley and *javává* (great millet), covering not 4 per cent., and the ordinary millets and pulses. Of the more valuable crops, sugarcane is grown exclusively along the Chénáb, and the poppy plant on wells, chiefly along the left bank of the Jhelum between Sháhpur and Bherá. The latter is a very paying crop, and its cultivation has made very rapid strides.

Wheat.

Wheat thrives best in the lowlands along the rivers, and here it is almost the only crop grown, for very soon after it is cut and carried, the streams, swollen by the melting of the snows, rise and inundate the area lately occupied by the crop, and only recede in time for a fresh sowing. The valleys of the Salt Range are peculiarly adapted, with reference both to quality of soil and climatic conditions, to the production of this staple, and thus we find it covering no less than 62 per cent. of the whole area under tillage in that part of the district. In lesser quantities it is raised on land artificially irrigated in the tracts called the *nákká*, but in the plains along the foot of the Salt Range, owing to deficiency of moisture and excessive heat, the proportion of this crop grown is very small and liable to frequent failures. In the still more arid parts of the district it may be said to be unknown. Wheat sowings commence, in the plains, in the month of Kátik (middle of October), in the hills nearly a month earlier. The seed is sown with the drill, about a maund to each acre of land. The only exception to this is in the land artificially irrigated, where, owing to the necessity of dividing the area to be sown into beds, in

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. The remaining acres under crop in 1880-81 and 1881-82 were distributed in the manner shown in the margin.

The following description of the principal staples and of the method of their cultivation is extracted from Colonel Davies' Settlement Report :-

The main harvest of the district is that of the spring.

The The

order to ensure a regular distribution of the water, the better mode of putting the seed into the ground cannot be adopted, and recourse is had to hand-sowing. The yield varies greatly. In choice spots in the Salt Range actual trials have shown it to reach the almost incredible quantity of thirty-five maunds, and the produce of an acre of good *sailéb* land when assisted by artificial irrigation cannot be less than twenty-four maunds. The average yield of every kind of soil, taken one with the other, the Settlement Officer fixed at at least twelve maunds. The crop ripens in the plains during the month of April; in the Salt Range it is not ready for the sickle till nearly a month later.

Bájrá is one of the hardest of the cereals, and thrives everywhere as a rain crop. Throughout the Khusháb tahsīl, it forms the staple food of the agricultural population. In the plains round the base of the Salt Range, it is the chief crop grown during the autumn harvest; but, owing to the early setting in of the cold weather in the valleys above, it can only be successfully cultivated there in years when the rains set in early. In unfavourable seasons its place is taken by *til* (*Sesamum orientale*), *máng* (*Phaseolus mungo*), *másh* (*Phaseolus radiatus*) &c. South of the Jhelum *bájrá* is much less grown, having a formidable rival in *jarwár* (great millet) the stalks of which supply valuable fodder for cattle, while those of *bájrá* are useless. The fine seed of this plant is sown broad cast (about two seers to the acre) and afterwards is ploughed into the ground. Ten maunds to the acre is considered a good crop.

Cotton has always been very largely grown in this district. Few wells are without their patch of two or three acres of this plant. More than this cannot ordinarily be set apart for its culture, as it is a crop that requires constant attention in weeding and watering. Ripening, as cotton does, late in the year, all attempts to raise it in the Salt Range have hitherto failed; but in the plains immediately below, where the temperature is exceptionally high all the year round, the plant is successfully cultivated as a rain crop, and in favourable seasons yields abundantly. The seed is put into the ground in March at the rate of eight seers to the acre, and the pickings, commencing in October, last to the end of December, and even later. The average out turn is about one-and-a-half maunds of clean cotton per acre. The same plants are often made to yield three crops, by cutting them down level with the ground each year after the cotton has been gathered; at the same time the soil is well ploughed up between the roots and manured. The amount produced in the district has been estimated, on an average of four years, at thirty-two thousand maunds, of which about half is retained for home consumption, and the other half exported.

There is no district in the Punjáb that produces more of this drug than Sháhpur. The poppy plant requires a rich soil and abundance of moisture. The mode of culture is this; the land which it is proposed to sow with this crop is allowed to lie fallow for one season at least. During the rains it is repeatedly ploughed and well manured. It then remains untouched till the beginning of November, when it is prepared to receive the seed, which at the rate of half a seer to the

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Bájrá.

Cotton.

Opium.

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Opium.

acre, is sown broad-cast, mixed with equal parts of sand to ensure equal distribution. Water is supplied as often as the surface shows signs of dryness. The young plants begin to show themselves about the twelfth day, and from this time, till the pods begin to ripen, the successful cultivation of the crop depends on the attention paid to watering, weeding and manuring. The pods begin to swell in March, and towards the end of this month, an estimate can be framed of the probable yield of opium. Traders then come forward, and buy the standing crop, after which the cultivator has nothing to do but supply water as required. The drug is obtained by making incisions in the pod with a three-bladed lancet. The incisions are made vertically, about half an inch in length, in the centre of the pod. Three strokes are made with the instrument each time, making nine cuts, and this is repeated four times at intervals of as many days, making 36 incisions in all, the whole operation extending over about a fortnight. The work is carried on during the middle of the day, as it is found that the heat assists the exudation of the juice. The morning following the making of each set of incisions, the juice which has exuded from the cuts is scooped off with shells, and collected in cups made of the leaves of the plant itself. It is estimated that one man, (women and children are not much employed in this work) can, on an average, incise the pods and collect the juice of about 10 *marlas* ($\frac{1}{16}$ acre) of the crop in a day; and as this is repeated four times, and the labourers are paid from two to four annas a day, the cost of extraction varies from eight to sixteen rupees an acre. The produce of an acre is from four to eight seers, the selling price from eight to twelve rupees. In the process of drying, the extract loses about a fourth of its weight. In 1881-82 the area under poppy cultivation was little below three thousand five hundred acres, the produce of which, at an average of six seers per acre, amounts to 525 maunds. Even reducing this by a fourth to allow for loss by drying, we have still the large quantity of three hundred and ninety-four maunds, which, at ten rupees a seer, represent no less a sum than Rs. 1,57,500. Careful enquiry has shown that, of the produce of the district, all but a few maunds leave it, the destination of by far the greater part being the great Sikh centres of Lahore and Amritsar.

Mehndi—(*Lauronia incnis.*)

This plant, so often seen in our gardens as an ornamental hedge, is extensively cultivated about Bhera, for the sake of the dye extracted from its leaves, which, dried and reduced to powder, forms a regular article of commerce. The mode of cultivating it is as follows:—The soil is prepared by repeated ploughings, not less than sixteen, and heavy manuring. Before sowing, the seed is allowed to soak in water for twenty-five days. It is then spread on cloth and allowed to dry partially. The plot of land in which it is proposed to grow the *mehndi* is then formed into small beds, and some days before sowing these are kept flooded. The seed is scattered on the surface of the water, and with it sinks into the ground. For the first three days after sowing, water is given regularly night and morning; after that only once a day. The young plant ~~first shows~~ above ground on the fifteenth day,

after which water is only given every other day for a month, when it is supplied at intervals of three days, and this is continued for another month, by which time the plants have become nearly two feet high. They are now fit for transplanting. The mode of conducting this operation is as follows:—The young plant on being taken out of the ground is reduced by nipping off about six inches from the centre shoot. After having been subject to this treatment, the young plants are singly put into holes previously dug for them at distances of about a foot from each other. They are then watered daily until they have recovered the shock of transplanting, and afterwards as they may require it. The fields are weeded regularly once a month. The first year nothing is taken from the plants, but after that they yield for years, without intermission, a double crop. At each cutting, about nine inches are taken from the top shoots of the plants. The two crops are gathered in Baisákh (April and May) and Kátik (October and November) of each year. The labourers employed in planting out the *mehndi*, instead of receiving their wages in money, are liberally fed as long as the operation lasts, and a distribution of sweetmeats takes place when it is over. The season for sowing is during the month of Baisákh; that of transplanting, Sáwan (July and August). A year's produce of an acre of well grown *mehndi* is twenty maunds of dry leaves, of which about six maunds are gathered in the spring, and the rest during the autumn months; and the same plants continue to yield for twenty or twenty-five years.

The selling price of the leaves averages a rupee for twelve seers, so that the value of the crops per acre is about 66 rupees. After the first year, the expenses of cultivation do not much exceed those of other crops. The produce of the *mehndi* grown in this district is nearly all carried across the Jhelum, and sold in the northern districts; none of it finds its way to the south. Besides the use to which the leaves are ordinarily put, *viz.*, as a dye for the hair, hands, &c., they are also given to goats and sheep, &c., when attacked by itch.

Table No. XXI. shows the estimated average yield in pounds

Average yield, Production and consumption of food-grains.

Grain,	Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.	Total.
Wheat	419,421	949,514	1,368,935
Inferior grains	612,138	106,805	717,633
Pulses	102,021	117,228	219,249
Total ..	1,133,570	1,173,277	2,305,847

per acre of each of the principal staples as shown in the Administration Report of 1881-82. The average consumption

of food per head has already been noticed at page 37. The total consumption of food-grains by the population of the district as estimated in 1878 for the purposes of the Famine Report is shown in maunds in the margin.

The figures are based upon an estimated population of 368,796 souls. On the other hand, the average consumption per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough estimate of the total production, exports and imports of food-grains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 152, Famine Report) that

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the annual deficiency which had to be supplied by importation was some 310,000 maunds, chiefly consisting of wheat from Bannu, Jhelum, and Gujrát.

Table No. XVIII shows the area of the several forests of the district which have been declared under the Forest Act, together with the degree of protection extended to each; while Table No. XVII shows the whole area of waste land which is under the management of the Forest Department. The following note on the forests of the district has been kindly furnished by Mr. Reuther, of the Forest Department:—

"The *rakhs* under the control of the Forest Department in the Salt Range are situated partly in the Jhelum and partly in the Sháhpur district (Khusháb *tahsíl*), comprising 309 square miles in the former and 211 square miles in the latter district. As they are entirely similar in physical and accidental characteristics, one general description will apply to the *rakhs* in both districts."

The Salt Range.

"The general character of the Salt Range is that of an elevated tract, rising abruptly to an average height of 2,200 feet above the alluvial flats of the Jhelam river on the south, but descending more gradually to the undulating plateaux on the north, above which its mean elevation is not more than a thousand feet. Its general course is east by north to west by south, extending over a distance of about 150 miles by an average width of about ten miles. But to the east of Jalálpur the range is deflected sharply to the north for a distance of about eight miles, after which, assuming a north-easterly course, it reaches a height of 3,200 feet at Tillá, from which point it rapidly loses in height until it merges, and is finally lost, in the plain country north-east of Jhelam. The average width of the section east of Jalálpur is about three miles. At a distance of 36 miles from its western extremity, the course of the range meets with another abrupt turn to the north-west by north, descending sharply from the culminating point of the range at Sakesar (5,010 feet) to the Indus. With the section from Sakesar to the Indus, which lies in the Bannu district, the Forest Department is not concerned. North-east of Jalálpur, and detached from the Salt Range proper by the bed of the intervening Buner torrent, is an outlying tract formed almost entirely by the Tillá mountain and its eastern extension of undulating, barren country, intersected by numerous ravines. The Salt Range proper commences at Jalálpur, and from there extends westwards without a break, rising gradually but steadily from 1,800 to 3,000 feet near its centre, and finally culminating in the peak of Sakesar at an elevation of 5,010 feet. The width of the western part of the range also increases gradually from two and a half miles at Jalálpur (Jhelam district) to 20 miles at Jabbi (about 18 miles east of Sakesar in the Sháhpur district), from which latter point it again contracts until the width at Sakesar is reduced to ten miles.

Salt Range *rakhs*.

In the tract between Jalálpur and Sakesar lie the *rakhs* Ara, Makhials, Kussuk, Dandot, Dalwal, Malot, Simli, and Nurpur (all in the Jhelam district), and Mangvál, Katha Masrál, Dilmíri, Kund, Dhokri, Choha, Warchá, &c., in Sháhpur, in all of which *rakhs* the soil contains more or less abundant deposits of salt which frequently crop out on the surface. The whole of the southern portion of the range from Sakesar westwards forms one continuous chain, steeply scarped on its southern face, and bounded to the north by elevated plateaux of irregular surface configuration, here and there surmounted by minor escarpments facing southwards. But north-east of Khewra, where the Mayo Salt Mines are situated, a spur springs from the northern side of the range, separated from it by a broad expanse of rugged

country, and stretches to the north-east for a distance upwards of 30 miles. At its western extremity where it leaves the main mass of the range, this spur is formed by the Diljabbá mountain, the summit of which has an altitude upwards of 3,000 feet and a width of three miles ; but further to the east the ridge declines to a mean height of 2,300 feet, and finally disappears in the broken ground near the right bank of the Jhelam river. This spur is covered by the the *rakhs* Diljabbá, Barali, Nili, Jindi, Lehri, Ban Samail, and Sagar, and contains no known deposits of salt.

“ South-west of Diljabbá is the Drenjan *rakh*, situated on a broad slope facing northwards, crowned by the ridge containing the ‘ Chel’ summit, the highest in the Jhelam district (3,701 feet). Its western extension dips down into a depression separating the ‘ Chel’ ridge from that of Karangal (3,526 feet), which latter on the western side terminates abruptly in a precipitous escarpment, but on the north descends gradually into the broken ground which extends for many miles beyond the northern boundary of the Salt Range. West of Karangal is the Choya-Saidan-Sháh valley with the Suria *rakh* on the north, the Ramhalawan, Dharm-tirath, and Gandhala ridges on the east, and the Dalwal, Malot, and Simli *rakhs* on the south. The Simli ridge throws out a spur to the north which is separated by a narrow gap of more or less level country from the ridge comprising the Bagga, Samarkand, and Chiniji *rakhs*. This ridge extending into the Sháhpur district, pursues an easterly course, separated from the southern range of Salt *rakhs* by a broad plateau varying in width from four to twelve miles, but reuniting with the main mass of the range at Sakesar. This northern ridge comprises the *rakhs* Jábá, Khabakki, Dhadhar, Makrúmi, Mardwál, Anga, Kotli Ugáli, and Chitta, none of which contain deposits of salt.

“ One of the most characteristic of the physical features of the Salt Range is the steep precipitous escarpment on its southern face. This is most marked in the central portion from Jalálpur to Sakesar, where the range rises almost perpendicularly above the alluvial tract lying at its foot, and forms a fine facade of lofty cliffs, penetrated by numerous ravines and gorges. From this feature it might be inferred that the southern portion of the range is but scantily clothed with vegetation, and this is indeed the case. The whole of the southern escarpment, as well as the heights immediately above the precipitous cliffs, are almost devoid of vegetation, and the surface is composed of rugged, bare rock-masses, incapable of affording nourishment even to such hardy trees and shrubs as are indigenous in the Salt Range. The northern slopes, and the upper plateaux at some distance from the southern escarpment, are frequently covered with a more or less dense growth of shrubs, but as a general rule trees, excepting stunted specimens of *Acacia modesta*, *Olea cuspidata*, &c., are entirely absent.

“ The predominating species of shrubs and trees met with in the Salt Range *rakhs* are *Dodonea viscosa* (*Santha*), *Adhatoda vasica* (*Bahikar*), *Celastrus spinosus* (*Phataki*), *Acacia modesta* (*Phulai*), and *Olea cuspidata*, (*olive*) ; but here and there occur specimens of *Dalbergia sisso* (*Shisham*), *Acacia Arabica* (*Kikar*), and *Butea frondosa* (*Dhak*). In favourable localities, such as the summit of Tilla, Chel, and Sakesar, many other species are found, such as *Pistacia integerrima* (*Kangar*), *Bauhinia variegata* (*Kalar*), *Odina wodier* (*Kamlai*), *Grewia oppositifolia* (*Dhamman*), *Punica granatum* (*Pomegranate*), *Tecoma undulata* (*Lahura*), *Buxus sempervirens* (*Box*), *Phoenix sylvestris* (*Palm*), *Chamoerops rithieana* (*Kilian*), *Dendrocalamus strictus* (*Bamboo*) &c. In the numerous ravines and torrent beds, clumps of *Nerium odoratum* (*Oleander*) are common, and here and there the steep escarpments are covered with hanging masses of *Hedera helix*.

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Salt Range *rakhs*.

Distribution and
nature of trees.

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nature of trees.**

(*Ivy*). But on the whole the Salt Range is poorly wooded, and the existing trees are so stunted and starved as scarcely to deserve the name of trees.

" The following is a list of the trees, specimens of the wood of which were contributed to the Lahore Museum in 1864 from the Jhelam district and the Salt Range generally :—

<i>Siam</i> (<i>Dalbergia siam</i>).	<i>Dhaman</i> (<i>Grewia elastica</i>).
<i>Siris</i> (<i>Acacia sirissa</i>).	<i>Kikar Walayati</i> (<i>Parkinsonia</i>).
<i>Bakan</i> (<i>Melia azadirachta</i>).	<i>Mulberry, tui</i> (<i>Morus Indica</i>).
<i>Banian</i> (<i>Ficus Indica</i>).	<i>Kachhaar</i> (<i>Bauhinia variegata</i>).
<i>Kamla</i> (<i>Odina nodier</i>).	<i>Lasura</i> (<i>Cordia maxa</i>).
<i>Kikar</i> (<i>Acacia Arabica</i>).	<i>Dhah</i> (<i>Butea frondosa</i>).
<i>Kakhar</i> (<i>Rhus acuminata</i>).	<i>Lahura</i> (<i>Recoma undulata</i>).
<i>Wild olive, kau</i> (<i>Olea Europaea</i>).	<i>Jalidhar</i> (<i>Symporia spinosa</i>).
<i>Ber</i> (<i>Ziziphus jujuba</i>).	<i>Large</i> (<i>Rhus cotinus</i>).
<i>Phulahi</i> (<i>Acacia modesta</i>).	<i>Saggbar</i> (<i>Ehretia elastica</i>).
<i>Sohunjna</i> (<i>Hyporanthera pterygosperma</i>).	

Forest management.

" The Forest Department has been in charge of the Salt Range *rakhs* since 1870, but hitherto the system of treatment has been purely protective, and no marked improvement can be said to have taken place. But this is due to the incessant damage done by cattle, particularly camels, goats and sheep, which allow no seedlings to spring up, and commit great injury on existing trees, by browsing off the shoots and extremities of branches; to some extent also injury is traceable to the action of the inhabitants of the Salt Range, who not only commit frequent wood thefts, but constantly persist in lopping trees to provide food for their cattle. But exclusion of cattle once effected, the *rakhs* will undoubtedly improve rapidly. A few of the *rakhs*, such as Drenjan and Parera, which in the days of the Sikh rulers were carefully preserved for the sake of the game they sheltered, prove by the favourable condition of the existing vegetation that the Salt Range is not incapable of producing a tolerably abundant growth of valuable fuel and grass, if not of timber. The present condition, however, of the *rakhs* being such as to preclude the possibility of exploitation, and to necessitate careful preservation of the existing vegetation, the policy hitherto pursued has been to maintain as strict a system of protection as circumstances permitted, and to avoid drawing upon the *rakhs* for supplies of fuel. In one instance, however, under the pressure of urgent necessity during the Afghan War, several extensive tracts in *rakh* Nili, Jindi Paniala, and Garat were cleared of trees for the supply of fuel to the Punjab Northern State Railway. This is, however, the only occasion in which extensive fellings have taken place, and the tracts denuded of trees have been closed against cattle.

Mineral products.

" In addition to the pasture afforded by the Salt Range *rakhs* to the cattle of the villages in and near the Salt Range, some use is made of the mineral products, such as coal and building stone. Of the former many beds are known, some of which are worked; and during the first nine months of working 4,292 tons of coal were raised, from which Government realized Rs. 8,586 as royalty. The working of the coal is now under the control of the N. I. Salt Revenue Department and the royalty has been reduced from two rupees to four annas per ton. Building stone of superior quality is quarried in large quantities at Taraki (in *rakh* Nili) by the Engineers of the P. N. S. Railway, and occasionally contractors and others purchase stone at various localities of the Salt Range, paying to Government a royalty of four annas per 100 cubic feet. But the income from this

source is insignificant, for although superior building stone is abundant in all parts of the range, the demand for it is small.

The following table shows the Salt Range forests of the Shahpur district. They all lie in the Khushab *tahsil*. As yet there has been no forest Settlement, and the respective rights enjoyed by Government and by the villagers have not yet been defined. A few village communities enjoy the privilege of pasturing cattle and collecting dry wood; while the general proprietary right belongs to Government. Indeed these forests have not yet been declared under the Act, and the declaration and settlement of rights will probably be deferred till the district next comes under Settlement.

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Salt Range Forests.

Forests under control of the Forest Department.

Name of Rakhs.	Area in Acres.	Name of Rakhs.	Area in Acres.
Chitta	1,177	Khâra	1,306
Urah	1,685	Kurâdhî	1,867
Khabakki, Dhadhar, Makrâmi	22,691	Jabbi	5,687
Koth	1,622	Amâb	12,864
Anga	5,126	Fatahpur	618
Jâba	5,232	Zirâbâ Mîrâl	3,139
Mardwâl	7,467	Jhunga Salo	2,714
Keri Rodhi	2,135	Uchall	622
Kandâna	1,182	Kawâdi (Mitha Tawâna)	8,182
Kalîsi	2,164	Jhsâr	2,245
Pal	5,773	Rodhî	3,182
Chamkâki	667	Dhokri	2,254
Surakkî	678	Chobs	4,166
Dilmârî	977	Warcha	13,611
Kund	2,692	Mangwâl	9,681
		Uchâla	5,144
		Total Area	1,34,824

Besides the *rakhs* above described, which are situated in the Salt Range, there are 35 *rakhs*, comprising an aggregate of 142,920 acres, situated in the Bhera *tahsil*, in the elevated *bâr* lands between the Jhelam and Chenâb rivers. These lands came under the Forest Department in 1872, and Government rights in them are absolute. They produce pasture and wood fuel, consisting chiefly of *jhand*, *van*, *karil* and *mula*, of open growth, stunted, and gnarled. They also yield a little saltpetre. As yet no wood has been felled; the available supply may be estimated at 40 mannds per acre. The pasture and saltpetre are annually leased to contractors, the former yielding Rs. 22,500 and the latter, Rs. 100. The following figures show the names and areas of the *rakhs* :—

Names.	Acres.	Names.	Acres.
1. Bahowâl	3,069	19. Khan Muhammadwâla	4,124
2. Bhalowâl	897	20. Nabi Shahwâla	3,694
3. Pakhowâl	1,062	21. Chûwâ	18,391
4. Rukan	1,864	22. Deowâl	6,150
5. Busâl	4,170	23. Lalâni	15,052
6. Ishar	1,879	24. Merullanwâla	5,081
7. Miâna Gondal	5,568	25. Kot Momna	7,999
8. Musâ	1,606	26. Ghulepur	2,019
9. Dafar	5,482	27. Matîla	14,148
10. Mona	4,178	28. Samorâuwâl	2,357
11. Makhodudi	2,102	29. Bhagdânwâl	4,543
12. Vairowâl	989	30. Mângni	3,651
13. Rattokâla	2,055	31. Bhiki Khurd	2,552
14. Melowâl	863	32. Abdâl	932
15. Dhori	4,569	33. Upi	2,854
16. Sâlim	3,700	34. Hujan	2,789
17. Chak Kâzi	1,288	35. Pindi Râwân	1,904
18. Khojâ Salâh	849	Total Acres	142,920

Bhera forests.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture
and Live-Stock.

Live-stock.

Table No. XX shows the live-stock of the district as returned at various times in the Administration Report. No peculiarities are recorded of the cattle, sheep, or camels, all of which are of the ordinary breeds and possessed of no peculiar excellence, with the exception perhaps of the *dumba* or fat-tailed sheep of the Salt Range, which is enabled, by the store of fat contained in its tail, to endure cold and scanty food in an unusual degree. The ordinary load for a camel is about six maunds. The district possesses several (it is said there are 15) excellent breeds of horses, well known even in distant parts of the Punjāb, and prized both for pace and endurance. The *maliks* of Tīwānā are well known horse-breeders, and possess many really fine animals:—

The price of a Bullock ranges from Rs.	15	to	Rs.	50
" " Buffalo	25	"	"	80
" " Camel	30	"	"	70
" " Horse (ordinary)	100	"	"	300
" " Donkey	6	"	"	18
" " Mule	50	"	"	100

Milch cattle, except she buffaloes, are in abundance in the *bār* and *thal* tracts of the district, and the *zamīndārs* realize a large profit by sale of *ghī* or clarified butter produced by these cattle. She buffaloes are kept in the Kondhi circle or villages on the banks of the rivers Jhelum and Chenāb. Bullocks are chiefly used on all farm work, such as ploughing, irrigating, &c. Buffaloes are very little used for such purposes, as they feel the heat and need to submerge themselves in the hot weather to keep in health and good condition. The *bār* cattle are particularly good. There are three distinct breeds of goats in the district, all good of their kind, known as the Salt Range, Chenāb and *bār* breeds. The following figures regarding the existing live-stock of the district are taken from a statistical statement submitted to the Commissioner of Agriculture, Punjab:—

Description of stock.	No.	Description of stock.	No.
Cows and bullocks	272,740	Mules	321
Buffaloes	40,478	Ponies	1,527
Sheep	132,830	Donkeys	10,860
Goats	69,468	Camels	8,235
Horses	2,826	Total	5,39,280

Government breeding operations.

Year.	Number of animals exhibited.	Number sold.	Prizes given.
			Rs.
1878-79 ..	261	43	1,860
1879-80 ..	243	..	842
1880-81 ..	143	10	707
1881-82 ..	246	17	770
1882-83 ..	243	27	860

A horse show is annually held in this district under the sanction of Government. The first show was held in 1878-79. The particulars of the horse shows held during the last five years are shown in the margin. The number of branded mares for horse-breeding are 356, and only 65 for mule-breeding; but under orders of Government unbranded mares are allowed the service of Government donkey stallions

for the purpose of mule-breeding.

There are nine horse stallions in the district, *viz.* three Arabs, two thorough-breds and four Norfolk Trotters. There are also eight donkey stallions, *viz.* three Arabs, three Italian, one Spanish

and two country-bred. There are two passed *salutris* in the district whose work is superintended by the *cilldddr*, also a passed man. They were educated at the Hâpur Veterinary School. The number of colts geld by the *salutris* and *cilldddr*s from January 1879 to December 1883, was 130. It is impossible to give any accurate data of the number of remounts purchased for the different branches of the army and by dealers, as *sevârs* on leave throughout the year go about purchasing horses, and dealers are active in the same manner all the year round. The Government system of horse-breeding has been in operation in the district from 1872. Breeders in the Shâhpur district have learnt from the example shown them at the "Kâlra Court of Wards Estate," that to breed horses successfully they must adopt the liberty system, i.e., have enclosed runs with sheds, a plentiful supply of good water and good fodder, allowing young stock a feed of corn morning and evening, and as much liberty as possible to develop bone and sinew. They must also geld the colts early so as to ensure them the liberty that is necessary for their development.

A cattle fair was held on 15th and 16th March, 1883, in which 997 cattle of various classes were exhibited and 578 competed for prizes. The prizes amounted to Rs. 485. The *bâr* cattle are particularly good. An experiment to improve the sheep of the district was tried by the introduction of Hissar rams, but hitherto it has proved a failure. Those sent succumbed to the extreme heat during the dry months which tries man and beast. However, in this district the *thal* and Salt Range sheep are famous for the indigenous breed, which could hardly be improved upon. Hissar bulls have improved the local breed very much, and their progeny is much appreciated by the people. The total number of these bulls now in the district is 16, and some more have been applied for by the District Committee.

The chief animal products are wool, *ghi*, and hides. It is estimated that the shearings of the large flocks of the *thal* and *bâr* yield annually not less than twelve thousand maunds, or upwards of four hundred tons of wool. Of this, probably two-thirds are exported, and the remainder consumed in the manufacture of blankets and felts. The fleece of the *thal* sheep has the reputation of being the finest in the Punjab. The sheep are sheared twice in the year, in the months of Chet (April) and Kâtik (October), the average yield of each separate shearing, called a *pothi*, being about three-quarters of a *ser*. The wool is bought by the *pothi*, so that, in speaking of the market price, it is customary to quote the number of *pothis* obtainable for the rupee. Average selling price, four *pothis* per rupee, gives eight annas as the annual yield in cash per head of sheep to the owner. This will sufficiently account for the great rise in price of these animals of late years. The head-quarters of the trade in wool is Nûrpur, in the *thal*, where a superior kind of blanket or *lai* is made. A good deal of the wool which is produced in the *bâr* is made into felt at Bhera which supplies a large part of the Punjab with this article.

Chapter IV. A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture
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Government breed-
ing operations.

Wool.

Chapter IV. B.

Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.

Ghi.

Hides.

Ghi is also largely produced in the district, the annual outturn being probably not less than fifteen thousand maunds, of which about a third is consumed on the spot, and the remainder exported. In former days nearly the whole of the surplus produce found its way to Lahore and Amritsar, but of late years the trade in this article has been diverted towards Sindh and the frontier. Like that of almost all articles of consumption, the price of *ghi* has risen wonderfully since the country passed into our hands, and, whereas, prior to that event, five or six *sers* could be obtained for the rupee, now the same money will not purchase a third of that quantity.

Regarding hides, there is nothing, more to be said than that many thousands are annually sent down the river for export to England, nearly all in their raw state.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES
AND COMMERCE.Occupations of the
people.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over fifteen years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report; and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the population of fifteen years

of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent upon each male of over fifteen years of age is the same

whatever his occupation. These figures, however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agriculture with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 124 to 132 of Table No. XII A and in Table No. XII B of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations, however, are exceedingly incomplete.

Principal industries
and manufactures.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82. The manufactures of the district are few and unimportant. At Khushab and Girot and a few other places, *lingis* of silk and cotton are made somewhat largely and have a more than local reputation. The *lingi* is a long scarf either plain or coloured, and with or without embroidered ends. It is worn not as a turban, but round the shoulders like a scarf. These industries, however, though they have a reputation for excellence, are confined to the towns mentioned, and the amount of manufacture is not large compared with other districts. There is also a consider-

Population.	Towns	Villages.
Agricultural	6,767	193,835
Non-agricultural	41,864	176,042
Total	58,631	369,877

able manufacture of leather goods, and of gold and silver lace. These industries are confined principally to Khusháb and Bhera. The ironsmiths of Bhera are celebrated for their skill, and the hardware of that town is much sought after in the neighbouring districts.

The other manufactures of the district are turned and lacquered toys, &c., chiefly made at Sáhiwál; baskets woven all over the district, those of Núrpur being considered the best; mill-stones made at Katha at the foot of the hills; mats made in the hills, large numbers of which are exported to Lahore; felts already mentioned, for which Bhera is celebrated; and soap largely manufactured at the same place. The mineral products have already been described at pages 11 to 13. The following description is given of the process of tanning as carried on in this district:—

“A cow's hide is the most generally useful, being strong and soft; a good one is worth Rs. 2. A buffalo's hide is the strongest of all, but very hard. It is used for shoe-soles, &c.: worth about Rs. 4. A camel's hide is too hard for most purposes, but is used for making *ghi dabbas*: value Re. 1. A bullock's hide is inferior in usefulness to a cow hide. A horse's hide is scarcely any use at all, being too thin and fine. A goat's hide is useful for parts of women's shoes, &c.: value about two-and-a-half annas. The process of preparing a hide is as follows:—The skin is soaked a day and a night in water, then taken out and scraped. Then spread hair downwards on straw and after rubbing the upper side with one *chitak* of *rají* and one-and-a-half *sets* of lime, and a little water, it is tied up with the *snij* and lime inside. It is then soaked for six days in two *sets* of lime and water, after which it is rubbed on both sides with broken-up earthenware. This is repeated at intervals till the hair is all off. It is then taken out, well washed and scraped, and has now become an *adhauri*, or untanned leather. The tanning process then begins. Well bruised *kikar* bark (*jand* is also used, but not considered so good) is soaked in water and the hide thrown in. When the tanning has left the bark, fresh bark is put in. This takes some days, after which the hide is sown up with *munj*, an aperture being left at one end, and hung up, the open end being uppermost. It is then half filled with bruised bark and water poured in, which, as it drops out, is caught in a vessel and poured back into the skin; this is continued until the lower part, when pricked, shows the colour of leather. The open end is then sown up, the other end opened, the skin inverted, and the process repeated with fresh bark, until the whole is tanned. The skin is then well washed, rubbed with the hand and dried in the sun. It is then soaked in water with bruised *madur* plants. *Til* oil is then rubbed over it, and it is again soaked a day in water. Then dried, sprinkled with water, rolled up, and beaten with clubs. It is then rubbed on the flesh side with a stick, called a *reáng*, made from the wild *caper* (*capparis aphylla*): the whole process, in the hot weather, takes about twenty-six days; in the cold, about eight days longer. Just before the skin is used, it is soaked for a day in a little water with a *chitak* of alum, four *chitaks* of pomegranate bark, a *chitak* of salt, and a *chitak* of *til* oil. During the day it is several times well twisted.”

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

Fine cotton goods bordered with silk, such as *lungis*, *patkas*, &c., are made at Khusháb in this district. They are of good quality and seem to be in fair demand. I know nothing of the ordinary country cloth, such as *khaddar* or *ghára*, and though it is probably produced here,

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries
and Commerce.Principal industries
and manufactures.

Tanning.

Cotton.

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.

Silk.

Wool.

Cutlery and Lapi-
dary work.

as in most other parts of the Punjab, there is no trustworthy information as to its quality or the quantity made for sale. Good coloured *thes*, loom-woven checks, and *bulbul chashm*, diapered cloths, are also made at Khusháb.

Pagris, and the other scarf-like forms of silk popular, are woven, sometimes plain and sometimes with gold ends, at Khusháb, which has a name for silk weaving and has sent good specimens to various exhibitions.

Felt or *numda* rugs are made at Bhera and Khusháb, in both white and grey, unbleached or coloured wool, decorated with large barbaric patterns of red wool merely felted and beaten into the surface. The white felts bear no comparison with those of Kashmir and parts of Rájpútána, and the texture is so loose and imperfect that they seem to be always shedding the goat's hair with which they are intermixed. The wool is not perfectly cleaned, and they are peculiarly liable to the attacks of insects. But they are among the cheapest floor coverings produced in the Province.

Goat's hair and camel's hair are worked up into rope, as in most pastoral districts. At Núrpur, *lóts* or country blankets are made, but they have no special character of colour or texture.

The wares in wood and metal from this district, which have been sent to the Punjab and Calcutta Exhibitions, give an impression of great technical aptitude, which seems to find but little employment and scanty remuneration. It is a common place to say that there is in this country but little of the sub-division of labour, and none of the machinery, which make European products cheap; but even in India there are few examples of the union in one craftsman of so many trades as are practised by the Bhera cutlers. Long before the introduction of machinery the Sheffield cutlery trade was divided into many branches, and the man who forged a blade neither ground it, nor hafted it, nor fitted it with a sheath. At Gujrát and Siálkot, the smith forges caskets and other articles of the *kofígar's* trade in complete independence of the workman who damscenes them with silver and gold. But at Bhera, the same artizan fashions the blade on the anvil, grinds and polishes it, cuts the hilts or handles from stone or mother-o'-pearl, and makes a leather covered sheath for dagger or sword. The favourite hilt is in the common green slightly translucent stone largely used in the bázár for amulets, neck bands, &c., and may possibly be hard alabaster or marble. It has been erroneously called plasma, and it is still more erroneously spoken of as jade. To both these, it is much inferior in hardness, being easily scratched and cut with a steel knife. I suspect it is found in the Salt Range, not far from Bhera, where alabaster and other stones occur. But the men say it is found in large pieces at Gundamak, not far from Jelálábád, that it costs two or three rupees per maund, and that there are troublesome and costly restrictions on obtaining it. It is brought down the Indus on rafts supported by inflated skins to Attock and thence by land to Bhera. This may be true, but I have only the word of a workman anxious to enhance the preciousness of his wares. The stone at all events has a better colour than true jade. Some of it is a delicate apple green, and other pieces are like verde antique marble. It is very useful in mosaic work. Besides knife handles and dagger hilts, it is fashioned at Bhera into caskets, paper-weights cups, &c. The work is always liberally smeared with oil to remove the white marks left by cutting tools.

A favourite form for a dagger hilt ends in an animal's head. In the collections of arms in the possession of some of the Rájpútána and Central India Chiefs, this design is seen beautifully wrought in crystal, and jewelled jade. The Bhera rendering is a very elementary attempt at a head.

Other stones used resemble serpentine and Parbeck marble, and are found in the neighbouring Salt Range. The cost of the stamp on the application for leave to quarry them is said to be all that is actually paid. The names given are *vagat*, and seem to be applied on very slight grounds. *Suleimān-i-patthar*, *Sang-i-Jarrah*, *Pila patthar*, *Sang-i-marmar* are some of them, and they explain themselves. These are used for dinner knives and arms as well as for the ornamental articles made in stone.

A pretty herring-bone pattern of alternate zig-zags in black and mother-of-pearl is frequently used for hills. The mother-of-pearl is imported from Bombay. The lapidary's tools in use differ in no respect from those in use at Agra, and indeed all the world over where machinery and diamond pointed drills are not used. A heavily loaded bow with wire string (or two for thin slices) is used for sawing, corundum, and water furnishing the iron wire with a cutting material, while the grinding and polishing wheels are the usual discs of corundum and lac, turned with the drill-bow for small work, or with the strap for heavy; but always with the to and fro non-continuous revolution of Indian wheels.

The best country iron, known at Bhera as *dāna*, is in fact a sort of steel; and when this is used, some of the blades of Bhera cutlery are of tolerably good quality, but it gets rarer yearly. Old files of English make are sought out and reforged into various forms. Old blades of stub and twist steel are often refurbished, and the *ab* or *jauhār* (the wavy markings in the texture of the blade) are still prized. These markings are rudely imitated for the benefit of English purchasers. The blade is covered with a mixture of lime and milk, forming a sort of etching ground on which, as it is drying off, the artificer's thumb is dabbed, with the effect of printing the concentric markings of the skin. *Kasas* (sulphate of iron) is then applied as a mordant, and, when skilfully done, the effect is not unlike that of a real Damascus blade. No expert, however, could be for a moment deceived by this etching.

There are apparently more cutlers in Bhera than can find a living. I have seen a Bhera knife purchased from a quantity shown at a fair in Rājputānā, and it is probable that these goods, produced in seemingly unnecessary quantities, are, like many more Indian products, carried farther by hawkers and pedlers than most Europeans would imagine.

At Bhera *chaukants* or door and window frames are most elaborately carved in *deodar* wood. The rates at which these beautiful works are supplied to native purchasers are almost incredibly low, but as a European demand has arisen they have been raised. The work differs from that of Chiniot in that the projectures are flatter, pilasters and other details being often merely indicated in relief instead of a half or quarter section being imposed. And the whole of the surface is completely covered with boldly outlined forms of foliage and geometric diaper made out for the most part with a V-section cut. There is something rude and almost barbaric in this direct and simple method of execution; but although there is no attempt at high finish, the general design and proportions are so good, and the decorative scheme is so full and complete, that the technical imperfection of the work as carving is scarcely noticed. A large door-way, completely covered with ornamental work, measuring ten feet high and of proportionate width, costs to a native purchaser about Rs. 25, which is but little more than the price paid for an ordinary plain door in other places. No use has been made by the Public Works Department of this beautiful and wonderfully cheap carpentry. The production of these doors and windows is not confined to Bhera; they are also made at Miani and perhaps at other places in the district.

Colonel Corlynn, when Deputy Commissioner of Shahpur, took a considerable interest in local manufactures, and especially in the lacquered

Chapter IV, B.
Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.

Wood-carving.

Sihwāl lacquer.

Chapter IV, C. wood turnery of Sôhiwâl. This differs from that of other places in being more crude in colour and simpler in execution. A particularly unpleasant aniline mauve is used; but there is a better class of vases, plateaux and toys made in two colours, red and black, or red and yellow, or black with either. The scratched patterns are bolder and larger than elsewhere, and many toys, *e.g.*, children's tea sets, are finished in transparent lac only, the colour and grain of the wood shewing through. Chess boards with chess men and a large variety of toys of forms that might puzzle an English child, are made at very cheap rates, but they do not seem to be as popularly known as they deserve to be. From the same town ivory toys of some neatness and skill in execution were sent to the Punjab Exhibition.

Combs are made at Nûrpur.

Jewelry.

There is nothing very noteworthy or distinctive in the jewelry or silversmiths work of the country side. From the chief places of the district, as well as from Tîwâna, specimens have been seen which shew an average of skill in work and design at least equal to that of most rural districts.

Leather.

Phulkâns.

Good embroidered shoes are made at Jappa and Anga.

It may be mentioned that the flower worked *chaddar* or *ohrni* of red or blue country woven cotton cloth ornamented with silk embroidery is worn in the district, but few are made for sale.

Course and nature of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district. Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. Apart from its connection with the Salt Mines, the trade of the district is insignificant. Opium and *sajjî* are bought up by traders from Râwâlpindi, Siâlkot, Kashmîr and the eastern districts, and salt finds its way in every direction. With these exceptions, all the surplus produce of the district, consisting of grain of all kinds, rice, cotton, wool, *ghâ* and saltpetre, is sent down the river in country boats to Multân and Sakhar; and in exchange for these commodities, sugar of every description, rice, English piece-goods, the precious metals, iron, copper and zinc, are imported; the first two from Siâlkot, Gurdâspur and the tracts comprised in the Jalandhar and Ambâlla divisions, and the remainder by the river route from Karrâchi and Sakhar. In addition to the above, during the cold season, *mâjith* (madder), dried fruits, spices, gold coins, &c., are brought down by travelling merchants from Afghânistân, and are bartered chiefly for coarse cloth, the produce of the looms of Khushâb and Girot and in a less degree those of Bhera, Miâni, and the other towns of the district. Of late years the trade of the district has been more slack than formerly. The exports and imports of food-grain have already been noticed at page 67.

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Prices, wages, rent-rates, interest.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazaar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent-rates in Table No. XXI; but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value.

The figures of Table No. XXXII give the average values of

Period.	Sale.	Mortgage.
1868-69 to 1873-74	11.8	6.15
1874-75 to 1877-78	13.12	8.13
1878-79 to 1881-82	16.14	10.3

Chapter IV, C,
Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.

Prices, wages, rent-
rates, interest.

the figures. The rates of interest prevailing in the district have already been noticed at page 57.

The local measure of grain varies much in different localities. The unit in all parts is the *topa*, or *chaubina*, a wooden measure of capacity; but the value given to this is fluctuating. In the Sháhpur *talsil* the *topa*—2 seers, and in parts of Bhera *talsil* the same standard prevails. In Bár-Músa it holds $1\frac{1}{2}$, in Músa Chúha $1\frac{1}{2}$ in Miána $1\frac{1}{2}$, in Lakcháwa $1\frac{1}{2}$ seers.

The following are the parts and multiples of the *topa* in use in the district:—

$$\begin{aligned} 4 \text{ paropis} &= 1 \text{ topa}. \\ 4 \text{ topas} &= 1 \text{ pat}. \\ 5 \text{ pails} &= 1 \text{ maund}. \end{aligned}$$

The local *bighá* is exactly half an English acre.

The figures in the margin returned show the communications of the district as given in the quinquennial Table No. I of the Administration Report for 1878-79, while Table XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowances. Table No. XIX shows the area taken up by Government for communications

Weights and
measures.

Communications.

Communications.	Miles.
Navigable Rivers	100
Railways	52
Metalled roads	6
Unmetalled	830

in the district.

Station.	Distances.	REMARKS.
1. Kohliá	...	Ferry.
2. Bunga Surkhru	3	"
3. Sada Kamboh	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	"
4. Dhák	5	"
5. Cháhbar	3	"
6. Sháhpur	1	"
7. Khushab	3	"
8. Tankiwala	4	"
9. Hamoka	4	"
10. Shekhowál	2	"
11. Thatti Hargan	3	"
12. Langarwala	3	"
13. Tetri	3	"
14. Taura	3	"
15. Majots	5	"

The Jhelum is navigable for country craft throughout its course within the district. The principal traffic on this river, as stated in Punjab Famine Report (1879), is shown in Table No. XXV. The mooring places and ferries and the distances between them are shown in the margin following the downward course of the river.

The salt branch of the

Rivers.

Railways.

Punjab Northern State Railway from Lála Músa to Bhera, runs through this district with stations at Haria, Malikwál, Miáni, and Bhera.

In 1862 the only shelter of any kind to be found along the roads consisted of two miserable *sarais*, and the local committee of the district was officially condemned for its supineness in this matter. Since then systematic efforts have been made by it to free itself from the reproach of indifference to this important branch of its duties, and with such success that it may be confidently asserted that there are now few districts in the Punjab where better arrangements exist for

Roads, rest-houses,
and encamping
grounds.

Chapter IV, C. lessening the inconvenience of travel. On the two principal roads a commodious *sarai*, containing a well and ample supplies of food, will be found at every stage of ten miles, and on the Lahore road, where it crosses the *bār*, intermediate wells of fairly drinkable water at every five miles distance. The following table shows the principal roads of the district, together with the halting-places on them, and the conveniences for travellers to be found at each :—

Route.	Halting-places.	Distan- ces in miles	REMARKS.
Sháhpur to Gujárát	Sháhpur	Staging bungalow, <i>sarai</i> , and encamping-ground.
	Jhávarián ...	10	First six miles metalled. <i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Chakámdás ...	0	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Bhera ...	11	Ditto ditto and rest-house.
	Miáni ...	9	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
Lahore to Deraját	Bádsháhpur ...	13	Ditto ditto
	Laken	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Khárgiánwala ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Mithálak ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Dhárema ...	11	Ditto ditto.
	Sháhpur ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Khusháb ...	8	Ditto ditto.
	Hádál ...	9	Ditto ditto.
Bannú to Lahore	Mithá Tiwána ...	9	Ditto ditto.
	Adhl Sargol ...	14	Ditto ditto.
Gujáránwala to Plad Dá- dan Khán ...	Tán Kalla	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Mithá Tiwána	Ditto ditto.
Sháhpur to Jhang	Kothiála	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Miáni ...	13	Ditto ditto.
	Núhang	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
Khusháb to Sakesar.	Sáhiwál ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Wádi ...	11	Ditto ditto.
	Sháhpur ...	10	Ditto ditto and staging bungalow.
	Núhang ...	10	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
Námnagar to Miáni.	Miáni ...	6	<i>Sarai</i> .
	Miáni	Encamping-ground and rest-house.
Khusháb to Sakesar.	Kathwáti ...	16	Rest-house.
	Sáhál ...	12	<i>Sarai</i> and rest-house.
	Uchál
	Sakesar ...	20	...

Other important roads in the district are from Mithá Tiwána to Núrpur, 24 miles, and Sháhpur to Kotmoman, 34 miles. An *ekké dák* runs daily between Bherá and Sháhpur station, a distance of 31 miles.

There are Imperial post offices at Sháhpur *sadr*, Bherá, Miáni, Chak Rámdás, Jhávarián, Sáhiwál, Kotmoman, Mithá Tiwána, Khusháb, Sháhpur city, Nowshera, and Gírot; and district post offices at Miáni, Kund, Mithálak, Miáni, Gondal, and Núrpur, with savings' banks and money order offices at all these places, except at Gírot.

A line of telegraph runs along the whole length of the railway, with a telegraph office at each station; but the *sadr* station (Sháhpur) is not connected by wire with any telegraph office, Bherá at a distance of 30 miles being the nearest office.

Post Offices.

Telegraph.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

The Sháhpur district is under the control of the Commissioner of *Chapter V, A.*

Ráwlpindi, who is assisted by an Additional Commissioner who is stationed at Lahore. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Extra Assistant Commissioner, and two Extra Assistant Commissioners. Each *tahsíl* is in charge of a *tahsildár* assisted by a *naib*. *General Administration.*

Executive and Judicial.

Tahsíl.	Kanungo and Naib.	Patwáris and Assistants
Bhera	2	48
Sháhpur	2	48
Khusháb	2	54
Total	6	145

The village revenue staff is shown in the margin. There are two Munsiffs in the district: one has jurisdiction within the Sháhpur and Khusháb *tahsíls*, and the jurisdiction of the other includes *tahsíl* Bhera. The head-quarters of the former is at Sháhpur Civil Station; but he holds his sittings every third month at Khusháb. The statistics of civil, criminal, and revenue litigation for the last five years are given in Table No. XXXIX.

There is no bench of Honorary Magistrates in this district.

The police force is controlled by the District Superintendent of Police. *Criminal, Police and Gaols.*

Class of Police.	Total Strength.	Distribution.	
		Standing guards.	Protection and detection.
District (Imperial) Municipal	340 113	53	296 113
Total	463	53	409

the force as given in Table No. I of the Police Report for 1881-82 is shown in the margin. In addition to this force 462 village watchmen are entertained and paid at the rate of Rs. 3 per mensem, which is partly levied

from occupants of houses and partly charged to *kamidána* cess in certain villages. The *thánás* or principal police jurisdictions and the *chaukis* or police out-posts are distributed as follows:—

Tahsíl Bhera. Thánás: Bhera, Miána Gondal, Kotmoman, Midh, Miáni, Chak Rámdás. *Chaukis:* Bhágtañwála and Láksin.

Tahsíl Khusháb. Thánás: Nowshera, Kund, Mitha Tiwána, Núrpur, and Khusháb.

Tahsíl Sháhpur. Thánás: Sáhiwál, Mithalak Jháwarian, and Sháhpur. *Chauki:* Dháromá.

There is a cattle pound at each *tháná* and also at Girot and Katha, all under the control of the Police Department. The district lies within the Ráwlpindi Police Circle under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police at Ráwlpindi.

Chapter V, A.

General Administration.

Criminal, Police and Gaols.

The district gaol at head-quarters contains accommodation for 321 prisoners. Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table No. XLI of police inquiries, and Table No. XLII of convicts in gaol for the last five years. The only criminal tribes in the district are Sānsis; but they are not proclaimed under the Criminal Tribes Act. Their number is as shown in the margin.

Tribe.	Men	Women	Children
Sānsis	141	121	172

Revenue, Taxation and Registration.

The gross revenue collections of the district for the last 14 years, so far as they are made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII, while Tables Nos. XXIX, XXXV, and XXXIV and XXXIII give further details for Land Revenue, Excise, License Tax, and Stamps, respectively. Table No. XXXIIA shows the number and situation of Registration Offices. The central distilleries for the manufacture of country liquor are situated at Shāhpur civil station and Bhera. The administration of Customs and Salt Revenue is described in a separate paragraph.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from the District Funds, which are controlled by a committee consisting of 27 members, selected by the Deputy Commissioner from among the leading men of the various tahsils and of the members of the head-quarters staff, the Civil Surgeon, District Superintendent of Police, the tahsildār, as *ex-officio* members, and the Deputy Commissioner as President. Table No. XLV gives statistics for municipal taxation, while the municipalities themselves are noted in Chapter VI. The income from provincial properties for the last five years is shown below:—

Sources of Income.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
Ferries without boat-bridges ...	8,221	8,760	6,955	8,156	7,809
Staging Bungalows ...	45	27	48	59	142
Encamping grounds ...	144	413	185	54	87
Cattle Pounds ...	4,128	4,860	3,038	3,636	3,613
Nazul properties ...	903	904	770	1,048	1,000
Total	13,440	14,490	11,905	12,948	12,081

The ferries, bungalows, and encamping-grounds have already been noticed at pages 79-80, and the cattle pounds at page 81.

The principal nazul property is the late Customs bungalow in the Shāhpur station. Figures for other Government estates are given in Table No. XVII, and they and their proceeds are noticed in the succeeding section of this chapter, in which the land revenue administration of the district is treated of.

Statistics of land revenue.

Source of Revenue.	1880-81.	1881-82.
Surplus warrant talukdār ...	391	728
Talukdār or proprietary dues ...	67	67
Fees ...	4	55
Other items of miscellaneous land revenue ...	336	3,442

Table No. XXXIX gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collections since 1868-69. The remaining items for 1880-81 and 1881-82 are shown in the margin.

Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions, and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current Settlement will be found below in Section B of this Chapter.

The salt mines have already been described in Chapter I.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government and aided, high, middle, and primary schools of the district. There is an English middle school for boys at Bhera and vernacular middle schools at Miáni, Sáhiwál and Khusháb. Primary schools are at Sháhpur civil station, Sháhpur town, Jhávarián, Kot Bhái Khán, Sada Kamboh, Kandán, Sábowál, Faruka, Derájárn and Mángowál in Sháhpur *tahsíl*; at Chak Rámdás, Malíkwál, Hariá, Bhábra, Hazra, Doda and Midh in Bhera *tahsíl*; and at Rájar, Pail, Khabakki, Katha, Nowsherz, Hadáli, Núrpur, Jamáli, Khai and Mithá Tiwána in Khusháb *tahsíl*. There is also a lower primary school for girls at the town of Sháhpur. Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the Census of 1881, and the general state of education has already been described at page 42.

There are also two girls' schools; one Hindi and the other Muhammadan. The pupils in the former school have made rapid progress.

The Bhera District School was founded on the 19th July, 1854. It is the Zilla School transferred from Sháhpur to the far more populous town of Bhera on 1st May, 1864. The school house is situated between the city police station and the charitable dispensary, and occupies the north side of the *bázár* running from the inner gate of Davies Ganj to the interior of the city. English, Persian, Urdu, mathematics, physical science, history, and geography are the subjects taught in the institution up to the standard of the Middle School examination. The school staff consists of a head master and 19 assistant teachers. The head master and five of his chief assistants are paid from Provincial and the other teachers from Local Funds.

The subjoined statement shows the expenditure, the number of pupils, and the results of examinations for each of the last five years:—

YEAR.	Number of pupils on rolls at the close of the year.			Expenditure.			Results of the Middle School examinations		REMARKS.
	Middle D. P. Patients	Primary D. P. Patients	Total	Middle D. P. Patients	Primary D. P. Patients	Total	Number of students in 1st class	Number of students passed	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	No. of students	No. of students passed	
1878-79	121	276	426	Rs. 3,091	Rs. 1,003	Rs. 5,297	12	7	
1879-80	25	339	463	Rs. 1,838	Rs. 2,114	Rs. 4,952	NIL	NIL	
1880-81	51	413	464	Rs. 2,829	Rs. 2,963	Rs. 4,793	11	10	
1881-82	47	457	504	Rs. 1,755	Rs. 5,076	Rs. 6,831	9	8	
1882-83	63	493	556	Rs. 2,932	Rs. 5,618	Rs. 6,776	13	13	

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General Adminis-
tration.

Education.

Bhera District
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Medical.

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Head-quarters of the Departments.

Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the dispensaries of the district, which are under the general control of the Civil Surgeon, and in immediate charge of the Assistant Surgeon at Sháhpur Civil Station and of hospital assistants at the remaining stations.

The saddr dispensary at Sháhpur was founded in 1856, and is of the first class, with accommodation for 20 male and 10 female patients. It is situated in the Civil Lines. The staff consists of an Assistant Surgeon, Hospital Assistant, Compounder, Dresser, Apprentice, and menials.

There is a small Church known as St. Andrew's Church at Sháhpur, capable of seating 24 persons. No chaplain is posted there; but the chaplain at Jhelam visits the station four times a year to hold a service.

The portion of the Punjab Northern State Railway which runs through the district is in charge of the Traffic Superintendent at Ráwpindi. The head offices of this railway are at Lahore. The Salt Traffic road from Miáni to Pind Dádan Khán is under the Executive Engineer, Provincial Division, Ráwpindi, who has also the charge of the public buildings in the district, and is himself subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 1st Circle, Ráwpindi. The administration of the salt revenue has been fully described in Chapter I, page 12. The Post Offices are controlled by the Superintendent of Post Offices at Dera Ismail Khán. The Forest Staff in *tahsil* Bhera is under the control of the Assistant Conservator of Forests, Gujránwála Division, and that in *tahsil* Khusháb is under the control of the Assistant Conservator of Forests, Jhelam Division.

The Customs (Salt) Staff is under the control of the Assistant Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, at Khewra.

SECTION B.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

Previous to the establishment of the Lahore residency, that portion of the Jach-Doáb in which the Sháhpur district is situated, used to be farmed out by the Sikh *darbár* to different *kárdárs* of Revenue administration under the Sikhs in Jhelam.

Guláb Singh, subsequently the Máhárájá of Kashmír, for some years held the lease of Bhera. Kharak Singh, afterwards for a short time Máhárájá of the Punjab, used to have the direct charge of the Sáhiwáli *tahsil*, and Diwán Sáwan Mal of Multan sometimes took the farm of the Kálowal *tahsil*. These magnates were succeeded in the years immediately preceding the Sutlej campaign by men of less note, who had smaller tracts of country entrusted to them. But both they and their predecessors,

Farmers collected as a rule, collected their rents by *batai* (or division of the harvest their rents by *batai* when reaped and threshed), or by *kankut* (appraisement of the standing crops), or by under-leasing a few villages, here and there, for a certain cash payment to some person possessing a little local importance, who again made his own arrangements for collecting his rents according to one of the above described modes. As the principal lessee held his lease subject to renewal annually; of course any contracts entered into by him were only for a similar period.

The result of these arrangements was, that the officers who first attempted to introduce the system by which the collection of the revenue was made in cash, had very little reliable data to guide them. It is true that the archives of the *darbār* could furnish them with the gross amount which used to be received into the Sikh treasury during a certain year for a certain tract of country; and so, again, the accounts rendered annually by the subordinate contractors seemed to show in detail the proportions in which the payments were to be credited to each village. But these accounts purported to show payments on account of revenue, and were no clue to the gross rental of each village; and it appeared from inquiry that the rent of the village was taken either by *bātāt* or *kānkūl*, the rate by which individuals paid varying in the same village from 50 to 25 per cent. of the gross outturn.

The grain thus collected was often made over by the sub-lessee, who had agreed to pay so much for the year's revenue of a village, to the *kārdār* at something under its market value. The *kārdār* again often received credit in the *darbār* treasury for the payment in cash of a certain sum on account of one or more villages, by complying with an order to pay certain troops stationed in the neighbourhood, their arrears of pay for a certain number of months. As these troops had been living on credit, the *kārdār* settled with them by giving so much in grain to the *bānyās* to whom the troops were indebted for food, and so much to the troops in cash. Seeing that the value of grain is continually fluctuating, it is obvious that when the payments made in that commodity travelled round so large a circle, the figures, which in the Sikh record exhibited the revenue of a village in money, were not of much assistance to the officer who had eventually to assess the revenue.

In the Sikh time the *bār* jungle villages paid a lump assessment ^{regular system cur-} ^{rent in the *bār*.} which was composed of a land tax, cattle tax and house tax. The inhabitants used also to pay another cess called *faroi*. The amount of this tax was very variable, and indeed its collection was accompanied with trouble. It was supposed to represent 25 per cent. of the value of the property annually stolen by the inhabitants of any particular village. However, this was an irregular source of income for the *kārdār*, and was not included in the official accounts; consequently it formed no part of the data on which the assessments of the Summary and Regular Settlements were fixed.

However, when the Residency was first established, no better data ^{First Summary Set.} ^{lement, etc.-Islam.} than these accounts of the Sikh *darbār* were procurable; and, as it was absolutely necessary that the land revenue demand should be fixed for the current year, English officers were deputed all over the country to assess the revenue of each village separately. The Government demand was to be fixed in cash, and each village was invited to enter into an engagement for a period of three years. The assessments were to be based on the Sikh returns, on which a reduction of 20 per cent. was to be allowed. Of course if particular circumstances seemed to require a large reduction, the English officers had the power to afford it. The term of this Settlement expired in the Shahpur district with the Sikh year Sambat 1907, corresponding with A.D. 1850. Mr. Lewis Bowring, an officer who produced a very

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Summary Settlement, cis-Jhelam.

Revision of asses-
ments of the Kalowál
tahsil.

And of those of Bhe-
ra and Sáhiwál.

Results of Summary
Settlement, cis-
Jhelam.

favourable impression on the people of Sháhpur, and whose name was constantly in their mouths for years after his connection with the district ceased, fixed the assessments of the Bhera and Sáhiwál portions of the district. The Kálowál portion was assessed by Mr. Cocks, who, owing to press of work, had to fix his assessments at Lahore.

The Government demand was paid in full for Sambats 1904 and 1905 (A. D. 1848 and 1849). The collections were still made from individuals in kind, but they were paid during the former year into the Sikh, and during the latter year into the English treasury in cash. In 1850 a few balances accrued, but still, owing to the high price of grain, and to other causes which have been fully explained in other Settlement reports bearing on the same period, the *zamindárs* were able to pay the greater part of the Government demand during that year, and also during the succeeding year. But towards the close of 1851, a great cry of distress arose throughout the district, and as the period of the Settlement made in Sambat 1904 had expired with the year Sambat 1907 (A.D. 1850), it was considered absolutely necessary that a revision of the demand should be at once effected.

As Major Birch, the Deputy Commissioner at the time, had no assistant, and the necessity was pressing, Mr. E. Thornton, the Commissioner, determined to revise the demand for the Kálowál *tahsil*, where the distress was the greatest. He accordingly, in the course of his tour, went to the village of Máng in that *tahsil*, and reduced the Government demand from one lac to 75,000 rupees. This assessment was commenced and finished in three days, and was humanly speaking, the means of speedily restoring an almost ruined and deserted tract of country to a flourishing condition.

Early in 1852, Mr. Ouseley was ordered to revise the Government demand in the Sáhiwál and Bhera *tahsils*. His instructions were to make the Settlement for the years 1851-52, or until such time when the Regular Settlement demand should be determined; that as the year 1851 had expired, any increase in the Government demand was to be collected from 1852 only, whereas any remission that was considered necessary was to have retrospective effect. The Government demand throughout the district was by these operations reduced from Rs. 3,42,492 to Rs. 2,67,455; this demand was collected without difficulty until the Regular Settlement assessment was determined, and when that assessment was determined, it was found that so far from a reduction on the Summary Settlement demand being necessary, an increase on it could be taken.

The results of the three Summary Settlements are shown in the following table:—

Number.	Tahsil.	Jama of 1st summary settlement.	Jama of 2nd summary settlement.	Jama of 3rd summary settlement.	Decrease.	Remarks.
1	Bhera ...	1,25,164	1,14,041	1,07,578	17,585	
2	Sáhiwál ...	1,18,750	99,913	96,139	22,212	
3	Kálowál ...	98,978	75,617	63,738	35,210	
	Total	3,42,492	2,90,553	2,67,455	75,037	The revenue of the Khushál and Fara- in <i>talukas</i> , transferred to Sháhpur from the districts of Leih and Jhang in the years 1851 and 1853, and added to the Sáhiwál <i>tahsil</i> , have been excluded, so as not to disturb the comparison.

The Mithá Tiwána, Núrpur and Sún *talukás*, as before explained, formed part of the *jágír* of Hari Singh, Naluá. After the death of this leader, the two former were transferred in farm to Malik Fatteh Khán, Tiwána, and were held by him, with but few interruptions, till his death in 1848. At the same time, the Sún *taluká* was for a year or two given in farm to Rájá Guláb Singh, who at this time held the contract for the greater part of the district, and afterwards transferred in *jágír* to Sardár Gurmukh Singh, Lámbá. The Khabakkí and Katha *talukás* were for many years the *jágír* of Hari Singh, Mazbi, from whom they passed to Mahárájá Kharak Singh ; the former in 1822 and the latter in 1825. On Kharak Singh's elevation to the throne they were given to Sardár Shamsher Singh, Sindhánwálíá, as part of his *jágír*, and so remained till annexation. The *talukás* of Ahmadábád and Núrpur Sethi went through many hands ; among others, Rájá Guláb Singh held the contract of the former for ten years from 1833 to 1843, and from 1844 to 1846 it formed part of Rájá Hirá Singh's *jágír*, while the latter for nineteen years, *viz.*, from 1818 to 1837, constituted the *jágír* of Sirdár Rám Singh, Billí, a native of Bhágpur in the Mánjhá.

The management in all cases was identical ; the *jágírdárs*, being foreigners, seldom resided on the spot, hence everything was left to the resident manager or *kárdár*, and as his tenure of office was often very precarious, he generally extorted as much from the *zamíndárs* as he could. The collections were made by that most iniquitous of *systems*, appraisement of the standing crop, or "tip" as it used to be called, by which the heaviest share of the common burden was nearly always made to fall on the shoulders least fitted to bear it, because, forsooth, the owners were unable to bribe the *kárdár* or his underlings into making a favourable estimate of the probable outturn of their fields, as their richer brethren did. *Bntá*, a far fairer mode of collection, was only resorted to in favour of individuals whom the *kárdár* wished to humour, or in respect of lands of which some portion of the state or *jágírdár*'s share of the produce had been temporarily alienated as a concession to the leading members of the agricultural community.

The first Summary Settlement was made by Mr. L. Bowring, and, seeing what insufficient and unreliable data he had to work with, the rapidity with which the assessments had to be made, and how obviously it was the interest of the *jágírdárs*, whose income would be affected by the arrangements made, to mislead, it is rather a matter of surprise that the first Settlements worked so well, than that considerable inequalities in the assessments were subsequently discovered. Other causes also combined to render revision necessary before long ; and this was accordingly effected in 1852 by Major C. Browne for the *talukás* afterwards received from Jhelam ; and in the following year, by Mr. David Simpson for those which then formed part of the Leiáh district. The result of these revisions was a considerable reduction in the assessments of the hill *talukás*, but more especially in regard to the *jamas* of

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tracts during Sikh
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Sikh Revenue ad-
ministration, trans-
Jhelam.

First Summary Set-
tlement, trans-Jhe-
lam.

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Second Summary Settlement, trans. Jhelam.

the villages lying along the north of the Sén valley. The assessment of the Mithá *talúqá* was also somewhat reduced, while that of Núrpur was raised by nearly thirty per cent.

This second Summary Settlement worked tolerably well; but still it was known that the assessment of the Salt Range villages was somewhat oppressive, and from time to time relief was given in the most glaring cases. This Settlement was ostensibly made for two years only, but soon after this term had expired, the mutinies broke out; and before the finances of the country had recovered themselves sufficiently to allow of measures entailing extraordinary expenditure being undertaken, the Leiah district was broken up, which led to further delay, and thus it was that no steps were taken for sometime to place the assessment and the rights of property on a sound basis. It must not however be omitted from mention that Mr. Parsons in 1860 revised the Government demand in the Núrpur *talúqá*; the result was a slight reduction; but a more important change was made in allowing the proprietary body in each village to engage separately for their own revenue, instead of the plan which had been in force up to that time, by which the Tiwána Maliks had alone been responsible for the payments of the whole *talúqá*.

Regular Settlement, 1854-1866.

In 1854 Regular Settlement operations were commenced in the Sháhpur district as then constituted (see page 24, Chapter II.) under Mr. Richard Temple, who was presently succeeded by Mr. Gore Ouseley. By 1860 Mr. Ouseley had completed the assessment of the Bhera, Kálowál and Sáhiwál *talúqás*; and he was presently succeeded by Colonel (then Capt.) Davies, who assessed the tracts received from Leiah and Jhelam (page 25) and completed the whole Settlement in 1866.

Soils and revenue rates, cis-Jhelam.

The popular opinion divided the whole land of the district as regarded its agricultural capabilities, into three great classes, *viz.*, *hitár* or the low lands liable to the inundation of the rivers; *utár*, or the high land in the *bár* jungle, where the water was from 60 to 90 feet from the surface; and *nakka*, or that strip of land situated between the very low and the very high land. So again in separate villages, the lands were classed as either *sailábá* land, subject to the inundations of the river, *cháhi* land, that dependent on wells for its irrigation, and *bárdni*, or land on which the crop was dependent on the fall of rain. The lands were entered in the assessment papers only under the heads of *sailábá*, *cháhi* and *bárdni*. The *cháhi* was divided into two classes—*cháhi sailábá* i.e. land irrigated by wells, but also having the advantage of being subject to inundation from the river; and *cháhi khalis*, or land irrigated only from wells. The tabular statement at the top of the next page shows the revenue rates adopted by Mr. Ouseley:—

In the *bár* Re. 1 was charged on *cháhi* land, and Re. 1 for every 20 acres of grazing land.

Results of Regular Settlement, cis-Jhelam.

The second table on the next page shows figures for the results of the Regular Settlement cis-Jhelam, in continuation of the information contained in the tabular statement on page 86.

Name of Taluk.	Name of Circle.	RATE PER ACRE OF					
		Choti		Baldah.	Baldah.	Baldah.	Baldah.
		Baldah.	Khanda.				
Bheri	Mohar	—	—	2 8	1 12	1 12	—
	Nasik	—	—	—	1 10	—	0 8
	Urai	—	—	—	1 12	—	0 8
Bhawal (now Shahpur)	Mohar	—	1st class	2 5	1 12	1 12	—
	Mohar	—	2nd "	2 0	1 12	1 12	—
	Nasik	—	—	—	1 10	—	0 8
Kulawal	Urai	—	1st class	2 5	1 12	1 12	—
	Mohar	—	2nd "	2 0	1 12	1 12	—
	Nasik	—	—	—	1 12	—	0 8

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No.	Taluk.	Jams of Temporary Settlement.	Jams of Regular Settlement.	Rate	Rate	REMARKS.
1	Bheri	—	1,77,372	1,76,974	2,92	
2	Bhawal	—	94,372	1,75,120	2,92	—
3	Bhawal	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	2,72,422	2,71,381	0,37	2,621
						Balancing these last two columns gives an increase of Rs. 3,346. The increase was caused chiefly by the formation of estates, the decrease was due to reduction of jams in existing villages.

Results of Regular
Settlement, cis-
Jhelam.

Col. Davies divided the trans-Jhelam portion of the district into the hill *mohar*, *dundd*, *thai*, and river circles, the last consisting of only two or three river villages which had not been assessed by Mr. Onsley. The following table shows the revenue rates he adopted. The soils have already been described in Chapter IV, pages 58—61. The classes represent the classification of villages made by him according to their quality:—

Assessment Circles	Description of Soils.	1st class.	2nd class.	3rd class.	4th class.		
						Rs. A.	Rs. A.
Hill circle	Hill	—	—	—	—	2 0	1 8
	Mead	—	—	—	—	1 8	1 6
	Rubber	—	—	—	0 12	0 10	0 8
Hill circle	Mohar	—	—	—	—	1 6	1 0
	Mohar	—	—	—	—	1 0	0 12
	Urai	—	—	—	0 8	0 8	0 0
Dundd circle	Mohar	—	—	—	—	1 6	1 4
	Mohar	—	—	—	—	1 0	1 14
	Dundd	—	—	—	—	0 7	0 0
Thai circle	Mohar	—	—	—	—	0 0	0 0
	Thai	—	—	—	—	0 0	0 0
River circle	No distinction of soil or class		0 4	0 4	0 4	0 0	0 0
	Mohar	—	—	—	—	0 0	0 0
	Urai	—	—	—	—	0 0	0 0
	Total	—	—	—	1 0	0 0	0 0
						0 0	0 0

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rates, trans-Jhelam.

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Basis of the assessment.

In the *thal* a rate of Re. 1 was imposed upon every 50 acres of pasture.

Having estimated the gross produce of each kind of soil, Col. Davies thus describes the subsequent steps by which he arrived at his assessment:—

“The rate at which the produce was converted into money was the average of the rates which had prevailed during the last five years, (reliable data for a longer period not being forthcoming); but as, owing to the fact that the famine year had fallen within that period, the result was probably somewhat too high, I reduced it by a fourth; for instance, if the average price of wheat during the past five years was 40 seers, I adopted 50 seers as the rate for converting the produce of wheat-fields into money, and so on for each kind of produce. Having got the value of the whole produce by this means, I took from it the proprietor's share of the produce according to the rate of *batāi* prevailing in the village (generally half), and after deducting from this half the *chaukidār*'s pay, road and school funds, and ten per cent. for *mirāsi*'s dues and other customary payments, I took from the balance or net produce *one-third* as the Government demand. According to the general rule I should have taken half, but in demanding the smaller proportion, reference was had to the fact that throughout the area undergoing assessment, the harvests were entirely dependent on rain. My object was to make liberal allowance for everything.”

Results of Regular Settlement, trans-Jhelam.

No.	Circle	No. of villages	Jams of sumiary settlement	Jams of Revised Settlement	Increase.	Decrease.
1	Hill	32	41,920	40,705	—	4,215
2	Mukir	11	26,659	26,300	—	359
3	Damis	13	21,676	21,770	84	—
4	Thal	23	10,517	9,630	—	897
5	Warr	3	2,620	2,450	—	170
Total		84	1,06,301	1,00,755	91	5,510

The general fiscal results of the revision of this portion of the assessment will be seen from the table given in the margin.

Reduction was nominal, except in the Hill circle, where as the statement before explained, the Summary Settlement *jamas* pressed very heavily in placos, and the general character of the assessment in the Sūn valley was

decidedly oppressive; on the other hand the assessment in the *thal* and *danda* circles was a good deal raised. At first sight it would appear that there had been a considerable reduction in the *tiṇi* of the *thal*; but in reality the tax was raised, for thirty *rakhs* containing an area of 220,000 acres, had been marked off.

Fiscal results of the Regular Settlement.

No.	Tehsīl	Summary Settlement <i>jamas</i>	Revised Settlement <i>jamas</i>	Increase	Decrease.
1	Bherā	120,679	123,690	—	6,110
2	Māhpur	103,216	110,817	1,702	—
3	Khusbāb	149,143	151,006	—	7,857
Total		353,037	376,512	1,702	13,477

The figures in the margin show the general fiscal results of the Regular Settlement, following the divisions of the district as finally adjusted.

The tenures being as a rule *bhnyāhāra*, the *jamas* are distributed primarily upon holdings, regard being had, wherever such distinctions exist, to the various qualities of soil: e.g., in the villages of the *hithār* the distribution is on land subject to inundation (*saīlāb*) and that artificially irrigated (*chāhi*). In the *nukka* on irrigated, and

General rule for distribution of revenue.

<i>Note</i> .—The real decrease, after deducting the increase of Rs. 1,702, is Rs. 11,725 which falls at about 3 per cent. on the Summary Settlement <i>jamas</i> ; but this does not take into account the income from <i>rakhs</i> (about Rs. 23,000) which for the first time were created during this Settlement.

unirrigated (*báráni*). In the hills on *hail*, *mairá* and *rakkár*, &c. In *zeníndári* and purely *pattidári* villages, the revenue is of course paid in accordance with ancestral shares, but as explained before, the number of estates held on these tenures is very small. While, however, the general rule is as stated above, in some parts of the district peculiar modes of paying the revenue exist; these will now be described, and the causes that have led to their adoption.

Past custom has had a large share in determining the mode of distributing the burden of taxation. In the *bár* during the Sikh rule a house tax* of two rupees used to be collected from all the residents of the village, proprietors and non-proprietors, independent of the *tirni* on cattle; and this custom has been kept up ever since, so that, of the *jama*, a portion which falls at about the old rate is charged on houses, another and larger share on cattle, and the remainder is distributed rateably over the irrigated and unirrigated cultivated area, as recorded in the Settlement papers. The two first sums are subject to annual *bách*, the last is fixed for the currency of the Settlement. The above rule, however, only obtains in the Bherá *tahsíl*. The distribution in the *bár* villages of the Sháhpur *tahsíl* is chiefly on wells, such having been the practice during the Sikh times in the Faruká and Derájárá *talukás*, to which these estates mainly belong. Here, and elsewhere, wherever the primary distribution is on wells, payments are made according to *shares* in the wells.

In the *thal* the revenue is distributed partly on land, and the remainder on cattle. The former, as in the *bár*, is a fixed sum distributed on recorded cultivation, irrigated and unirrigated, by far the greater part being of the latter class, which pays at an uniform rate of four annas an acre, the sum at which it was actually assessed. The quota charged on cattle, here also, is liable to re-allotment annually, camels for this purpose being rated at sixteen annas, buffaloes eight annas, cows four annas, and sheep and goats each one anna.

In the tract called the *dandá*, the mode of payment is, in the main, the same; but there is this peculiarity in the distribution of the quota charged on land, that the *whole area included in separate holdings* bears a share of the burden, the uncultivated portion being assessed at from a fourth to an eighth of the rate payable on the area actually under cultivation. The reason for this is that the site of cultivation is periodically changed, so as to allow long intervals of rest to the abandoned land. This arrangement further obviates the necessity of re-measurement and re-distribution of assessment, should great changes take place hereafter, *relatively*, in the extent of land cultivated by the several members of the village communities. The absence of some such compensating element was much felt during the currency of the Summary Settlement, and in some villages led to serious inconvenience.

In the *muhár*, the whole of the burden falls on land. In the best villages, which enjoy the monopoly of the drainage from the Salt Range, and in which the distinctions in quality of soils are very strongly marked, the distribution is by soils. In the remainder,

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The rule in the *bár*
of Bherá *tahsíl*.

Plan adopted in
Sháhpur *bár*.

In the *thal*.

In the *danda*.

In the *muhár*.

* Called *búha*, which is the Punjábi for "door."

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where the same differences do not exist, the revenue is divided uniformly over the area under tillage as measured at Settlement. At first it would appear as if this were scarcely fair to the owners of the inferior *rahidár* land, but enquiry has shown, that where this rule of distribution has been adopted, the difference in quality of the inferior land has been made good to these, by the possession of waste land in larger quantities than that attached to the superior *náláddár* land ; and, be it remembered, the waste land *here* is not charged with any portion of the revenue.

The rule in the Salt
Range

Throughout the Salt Range, the revenue is distributed by soils, and so great is the difference in the productive powers of land in the best villages, that the *samindars* have for this purpose carried the distinction of soils so far as to sub-divide the *hail* and *maird* lands each into two classes: In only a few of the very inferior estates has an uniform rate been adopted.

Current Settlement.

The settlement now current is sanctioned for a term of fifteen years from 1st April 1866. The result of the settlement was to assess the fixed land revenue of the district at the amount of Rs. 3,76,512, being a decrease of Rs. 1,17,525 or three per cent. on the preceding demand. The rates used for the purposes of assessment have been shown at page 89.

The incidence of the fixed demand per acre as it stood in 1878-79 was Rs. 0-12-8 on cultivated, Rs. 0-2-8 on culturable, and Rs. 0-2-3 on total area. The areas upon which the revenue is collected are shown in Table No. XIV, while Table No. XXIX shows the actual revenue for the last 14 years. The statistics given in the following tables throw some light upon the working of the settlement :—Table No. XXXI.—Balances, remissions, and *takávi* advances. Table No. XXXII.—Sales and mortgages of land. Table Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA.—Registration.

Revenue instal-
ments.

The revenue is paid in four instalments after the gathering in of the two harvests, that is, in the months of June and July for the spring, and December and February for the autumn harvest. The only exception is in the hills, where, owing to the *rabí* crops ripening a month later than in the plains, special sanction has been obtained to postpone the collections on account of this harvest till the 15th July and 15th August. The proportions, however, in which payments are made during the year vary to suit the circumstances, of each natural division. In the *thal* and *bár*, where the major part of the revenue is contributed by the owners of the cattle, collections are made in four equal instalments ; in the Salt Range *kithán* and *nakka*, where the *rabí* is the principal crop, the division is three and two-fifths, respectively for the spring and autumn harvest ; lastly, in the *muhár* and *dandá* the reverse of this is the rule.

Cesses.

The following are the cesses levied in addition to the land revenue demand :—Local rate cess, Rs. 8-5-4 per cent. road cess and education cess, one per cent. each. The rates are uniform throughout the district.

Assignments of land
revenue.

Table No. XXX shows the number of villages, parts of villages, and plots, and the area of land of which the revenue is assigned, the amount of that revenue, the period of assignment, and the number

of assignees for each *tahsīl* as the figures stood in 1881-82. The amount alienated at the Regular Settlement was Rs. 46,366, or rather more than twelve per cent. on the total revenue. Of this nearly Rs. 12,000 were rewards granted for life on account of service rendered during the Mutiny, many of which have since lapsed. The table at pages 94-5 gives details of the assignments as they stood in 1866. With reference to the question of *ināms* to leading men, Col. Davies writes as follows :—

“ The enquiries into *máfi* cases were not conducted in a very liberal spirit, and the general result therefore was that about two-thirds of the claims were rejected. Unfortunately, these included many cases technically known as *ināms*, and the *camindārs*, perceiving that the policy of the Government was adverse to the recognition of such claims, from that time ceased to urge them, at least on paper. One general principle appears to have guided the decision in this class of cases *viz.*, that the receipt of *lambardári* allowance was compensation in full for all claims of this nature, thus reducing the great and small all alike to one level. This was an undoubted mistake, and no attempt was made to remedy it till quite lately ; for Mr. Ouseley, as would appear from his writings, was averse to the restoration of these grants, or rather was doubtful of our ability thereby to create a class that should be of real assistance in the administration. Not sharing these doubts myself, and strongly impressed with the impolicy, if not positive injustice, of debarring the leading *camindārs* of this district from sharing in the benefits conferred on their compeers in the surrounding districts, I brought the matter to the notice of the proper authorities, and obtained the sanction of Government to send up proposals to rectify the initial error. In accordance therewith, carefully considered recommendations have been submitted for the restoration of *ināms* varying in amount from fifty to two hundred and fifty rupees per annum, to fifty-five of the principal land-holders and men of influence in the district. The amount of revenue proposed to be alienated in this manner is not five thousand rupees, or somewhat less than one and a half per cent. of the annual income from land; a small investment that I venture to predict will yield large returns.”

Table No. XVII shows the area and income of Government ^{Government lands, forests, &c.} estates ; while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. The forests have already been noticed at pages 68—71.

The apparent loss of revenue resulting from the operations of the Regular Settlement was more than counterbalanced by the income derived from the Government *rakhs*, or preserves, which were separately demarcated and appropriated by the Settlement Officers. Prior to annexation no recognized village boundaries existed in the *bár* and *thal* jungles. Throughout this expanse, villages inhabited by various Muhammadan tribes, whose chief wealth consisted in cattle, were to be found very often at distances of 10 to 12 miles apart. Owing partly to the scarcity of well water, and to the dearth of rain which is a characteristic of the Sháhpur climate, and to the presence of trees and shrubs on which camels feed, and to there being during some months of the year (if the fall of rain has been at all favourable) an abundance of grass,—the people carried on very little agriculture, but kept up large flocks and herds.

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Detailed Statement of Jagirs of the Shalivpur District.

Ranking	Name of Jagirdars.	Name of Jagir villages.	Total number of Jagirs	Total area of each	Grand Total.	Period for which granted	Remarks.
1	Malik Sher Ober Khan, Tiwana	Kundi, Kirpalkot	2,083 473	2,083	2,083	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1691, of 21st August 1860.
	Ditto	Uli Rai	980	980	980	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1396, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Irida	115	60	115	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
	Ditto	Lukka	60	60	60	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
	Ditto	Sheikh	60	60	60	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
	Ditto	Angar	63	63	63	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
	Ditto	Ahond	118	1,414	1,414	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
	Ditto	Shih	118	5,000	5,000	For life.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatah Sher Khan's Jagir.
2	Malik Sher Muhammad Khan, Tiwana	Jabbi	6,088	6,088	6,088	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Jaura	618	618	618	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Siwal	178	6,920	6,920	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Kolla	178	6,920	6,920	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Ranis Signal	60	60	60	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Terr.	650	650	650	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Chandi	61	61	61	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
	Ditto	Kachhi	376	376	376	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 21st May 1860.
3	Malik Alim Sher Khid, Tiwana	Sheikhowal	829	2,029	2,029	In perpetuity.	Same authority as in Ulema Khan's case.
	Ditto	Akora	300	628	628	For life.	Ditto
	Ditto	Patchour	700	628	628	For life.	Ditto
	Ditto	Gogochakhi	216	610	610	For life.	Ditto
4	Malik Sher Bihadar Khan, Tiwana	Joya	300	300	300	In perpetuity.	Same authority as in Malik Fatah Sher Khan's case.
	Ditto	Hamota	936	1,235	1,235	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1590, of 16th August 1860.
5	Malik Ahmad Khan, Tiwana	Thatti Yar...	825	825	825	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 295, of 11th September 1853.
	Ditto	Jhoti Manger	611	611	611	In perpetuity.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Kalla	308	750	750	In perpetuity.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Mugliwala	750	750	750	In perpetuity.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Nia	1,126	3,019	3,019	In perpetuity.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
6	Mubarik Khan, Bilech	Newhalare, ...	1,100	4,100	4,100	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's letter No. 295, of 11th September 1853.
	Ditto	Merhi	750	215	215	For life.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Sehal	501	1,200	1,200	For life.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Haora	501	1,200	1,200	For life.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
7	Sardar Attar Singh	Bunga, Choral	316	350	350	In perpetuity.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
8	Malik Sabit Khan, Tiwana	Jhanea Saloi	400	400	400	For life.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
9	Sayad Sulkin Ahmad Shah	Grand Total	—	21,851	21,851	For life.	Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.
10	Sulkin Muhammad Avin						Do, do, in Secretary's letter No. 336, of 31st January 1860.

Map of the Shashpur district as they stood in 1866.

Name of Tahsil.	In perpetuity.	For the main- tenance of institu- tions.	For life.	Total.	Hindu.	Muslim.	Total.	Area in acres.		Area in acres.		Jama'a.										
								Carc.	Jama'a.	Carc.	Jama'a.											
Bhera	17	350	370	23	2,760	3,016	178	14,118	7,857	221	17,238	22	2,017	2,810	13	139	105	46	3,086	3,006		
Shahpur	24	9,185	5,101	4	210	153	57	3,436	2,630	85	13,910	81	6,153	14	6,467	9,230	8	180	101	52	6,327	6,331
Khuhar	10	4,037	2,199	13	1,156	392	57	1,066	1,606	83	6,700	4,170	11	010	157	2	210	311	13	1,290	468	
Total	50	13,819	8,310	45	4,102	3,170	263	10,318	11,982	350	37,253	23,171	57	10,013	6,327	23	600	677	80	10,022	6,804	

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Disputes relating to right to use of water more common than claims to possession of land.

As the villages were few and far apart, disputes about grazing ground were of rare occurrence. There was land enough for all. But sometimes a dispute took place about the right of watering cattle at a certain pond or natural tank. Two villages situated a dozen miles apart, would perhaps in a season of drought, both assert a claim to water their cattle at a tank equidistant between their villages. In the endeavour to enforce their fancied rights, a fight would ensue, and the victors would probably build a few grass huts for themselves and their cattle, in which they would reside for a couple of months and then desert the place for some better locality. The defeated party of one year often turned the tables on their adversaries in the year after, and took possession of the disputed water. Might was right, and beyond actual possession, there was no test by which to judge as to what lands ought to be considered as within the boundaries of any particular village.

Clever expedients resorted to by the people to obtain large grazing grounds.

When Regular Settlement operations commenced, the country having been annexed some five years, and the people having had such preparatory instruction as two summary settlements could afford, the *zamindars*, knowing our respect for prescriptive rights, determined to divide the jungle among themselves. They accordingly established little out-posts, with a few men and a few head of cattle in each of them, at distances of several miles round the parent village, and proposed to encircle them all in one ring-fence which was to represent their village boundary. Had this arrangement been permitted, the result would have been, that the whole jungle, which may hereafter become valuable property to the State, would have been appropriated by a few thousand cattle grazers, whose annual contribution of revenue does not in the aggregate exceed 35,000 rupees.* To show how preposterous were some of the claims raised, Mr. Ouseley mentions that the present area of Mauzah Lak, after converting large tracts originally included by the villagers in their boundary into Government *rakhs*, still exceeds 4,000 acres.

Change since annexation.

Before the commencement of our rule, owing to the lawlessness of the times, however far parties took their cattle from the villages during the day, they brought them back to the protection of village for the night. After annexation people became bolder. Small parties of men who would formerly have been afraid to have separated themselves so far from the main village, during the next few years, sunk a *kacha* well, and built a hut or two, at some spot favourable for pasturage, five or ten miles from their village. More than this, as the people began to learn the weight which is attached by us to possession, they took to ploughing up and sowing small patches of ground not equal in size to a quarter of an acre, at distances of from three to ten miles from their villages, the object being to try and make good their title to all the intermediate grazing land between these patches and their village sites. Thus Mr. Ouseley writes (1859): "Last year, when at Mitha Tiwana, I had to visit a spot which was the subject of dispute between the *zamindars* of Mitha and Ukhli Mohla. I found that the disputed boundary was nearly ten miles from one village and seven miles from the other.

* The actual sum is Rs. 33,472.

The dispute itself extended over five or six miles of desert, and before I left the spot the *zamīndārs* of Roda in the Leiāh district came up, and declared that the land which I had been looking at belonged to their village, which was six or seven miles away. During my ride I was taken by one party or other, to see the marks of their possession, which were little patches of ground of the size of a quarter of an acre or so, scattered over distances of a mile or more from each other, in which somebody had sown a few seeds of *bájra* which had never ripened owing to want of rain. The existence of these spots appeared to be only known to a few men on either side; and from the recriminations which used to follow on their being brought to notice, I believe they were ploughed up and the seed cast in secretly at night, and then neglected altogether, as the object was not to attract the attention of the opposite party to the progress that was being made in securing ground, until the settlement *ahilkars* should commence operations."

After much deliberation it was arranged that the demarcation of boundaries in the *bār*, should be carried out on the same principle as had been adopted in Gujrānwāla. The villages were called on to state how many head of cattle they possessed, and they were allowed an area of waste land calculated upon the number of their cattle, at four acres a head in the *bār* and ten acres in the *thal*, five sheep or goats being counted as equal to an ox. In the Mitha Tiwāna *thal* Mr. Ouseley marked out boundaries arbitrarily, without reference to the numbers of cattle, or rather, to any exact scale based upon that number. The quantity of land that each village was entitled to being once settled, every effort was made to draw out boundaries with a due regard to existing possession, and where possession did not exist to prevent it, the village area was made of as compact a shape as was feasible. But so averse were the villagers to this arrangement, that they threw every obstacle in the way of the persons employed for the demarcation of their boundaries. The area remaining after this demarcation was constituted Government *rakhs*.

It might have been supposed that the plan adopted would have led the people to exaggerate their possessions, in order to obtain large pasture grounds, but such was not the case. The people of this country are everywhere suspicious, and here they seem to have thought that a trap was being laid to extract from them the real numbers of their cattle, in order that the information might be afterwards made use of to raise the assessment; they therefore if anything, returned the number of cattle as too small. But the arithmetical standard was liberal in itself and was not too strictly applied, every care being taken that the area allotted to each village should be more than amply sufficient for its greatest possible requirements.

The present system of *trinni*, by which grazing dues are realised from animals pasturing in Government *rakhs*, is as follows:—

Grazing dues in Government *rakhs*.

Most of the *rakhs* used for grazing purposes are leased out every year, and the contractors make their own arrangements for collec-

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Change since annexation.

The principle for defining boundaries determined on.

Chapter V. B. tion of *tirni* according to the sanctioned scale of rates specified in their leases which is:—

Land and Land Revenue.

Grazing dues in Government rakhhs.

	For Camels	1 Re.	per head.
" Buffaloes	12	Annas	do.
" Cows and Bullocks	8	"	do.
" Sheep and goats	1	Anna	do.

The system in force regarding *tirni* in those few *rakhhs* which are managed directly and not leased out is as follows:—All cattle of zamindárs and others, who are desirous of grazing their animals in Government lands, are enumerated and entered in a register by the *patwári* of the circle and then allowed to enter upon the *rakh*. The *patwári* grants a "permit" or *parcha* to the owner of the cattle which insures their admission to the *rakh*. The rate of *tirni* in the *rakhhs* under direct management is the same as for those on lease. The income derived by the Government from these *rakhhs* for the past five years is as follows:—

1878-79	...	Rs. 84,129	1880-81	...	Rs. 75,586
1879-80	...	85,481	1881-82	...	" 33,441
1882-83	...	Rs. 32,269	"

Government canals.

There are now altogether six canals in the Sháhpur district belonging to Government. The areas irrigated by them have already been given in Chapter I, page 9. The present state of these canals will be best shown by a short description of each.

Station Canal.

The *Station Canal* takes out of the main stream of the river Jhelam near a village called Dudhí, about 16 miles to the north-west from Sháhpur. The average width of the canal bed for some distance from the head is 23 feet, and the longitude slope 1 in 5,700; so that the discharge with four feet of water is 165 cubic feet per second. About a mile from the river the canal joins the district road near Jhaurián village, and running parallel at a distance of 20 or 30 feet, crosses the former some distance further on. From here the canal keeps close to the line of road through high and low ground till it reaches Sháhpur. About five miles from the station a small branch eight feet wide and two feet deep takes off to feed the new Sahiwal or Station Extension Canal. Below this point the canal narrows down to a 10-feet bed, and ends altogether at the station of Sháhpur. The primary object of this canal appears to have been to water the trees along the district road and in the station, and to irrigate the station itself. Its total length is about 17 miles, and as the land passed through is high, water for irrigation on the way can usually only be taken off by damming up the canal. This of course prevents proper distribution of the water, and causes a large deposit of silt whenever the *bands* are made. The silt clearance of this as of all the other canals is done by guess. Some lengths in different parts of the canal too are cleared out yearly, whereas others are left for two or even three years without clearance. The rate for flow irrigation is Rs. 2-8-0 per acre, and is the same for all crops. For Persian-wheels (*ghallars*) the charge is Rs. 16 for the season, and they irrigate about thirty acres. As before noted the canal is classed as Imperial.

Station Canal Extension or New Sahiwal Canal.

The main head of this canal is in the river about two miles below the head of the Station Canal. Its bed was 4⁷/₈ feet above the level of

the water of the Jhelam in December 1883; but a considerable part of this, probably two or three feet, is silt, which is cleared out before the river rises. The channel is 14 feet wide, longitudinal slope 1 in 4,500, and depth of water 2 $\frac{1}{2}$, with a full supply giving a discharge of 48.39 cubic feet per second. The position of the head is very favourable at present, but the canal itself is liable to be breached by a drainage or spill from the river, which crosses it about two miles down. About three miles down, the channel joins and runs alongside a native canal (Sarfaráz Khán's) for three or four miles, the distance between the two varying from 10 feet to 200 feet, and the land cut off being of course wasted. Although no irrigation takes place from this canal till within a few miles of Sháhpur, it runs through cultivated land the whole distance. Near the village of Kot Bhai Khán, the drainage from a low-lying plot of ground sometimes flooded by a breach in the Station Canal is taken in, and after being joined by the feeder from the latter, the canal bed widens to an average of 16 or 18 feet. The width, however, is very irregular. Here the bed slope is 1 in 4,700; so that with 18 feet bed and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet of water in the channel, the discharge would be 62.18 cubic feet per second. Three years ago this canal was dug right up to the town of Sahiwal, but the supply being insufficient, the water has only reached half way from Sháhpur to that place up to the present, the last ten miles of the canal having been left dry each year. This fact is due to want of proper arrangements for distribution and also partly to bad alignment. The canal keeps close to the road, which runs nearly straight from Sháhpur to Sahiwal, only at one point curving to avoid a hill. This canal is also Imperial, and the water rates are the same as on the Station Canal. It is 40 miles long.

The Sahiwal Canal takes out of the Main River about seven miles above the town of Sahiwal. The position of the head at present is an extremely favourable one, being protected from scour or liability to silt. There is much less silt met with in and on the banks of this canal than in any of the other Government canals in the district. The capacity of the canal at its head is 38 cubic feet per second; bed width being 12 feet long, slope 1 in 5,000, and depth of water in full supply 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Down to Sahiwal the canal is everywhere in cutting of a uniform depth of five to six feet, and although it has been running for 15 years, there is, except at the head, very little trace of silt on the banks. The irrigation for a considerable distance is nearly all carried on by the aid of Persian-wheels (*jhallars*); towards and beyond Sahiwal, however, the water flows on to the land through water-courses. The canal bifurcates at the Sahiwal and Girot Road about three miles from the former place, the smaller branch crossing the road and the other turning parallel to it crossing near the town. At Sahiwal the canal appears to form a receptacle for the drainage of the town and of the country to the north-west. It then runs south for about 12 miles, and eventually, if there is water enough, rejoins the river. The water rates in force are Rs. 1.8 per acre for flow irrigation.

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Old Sahiwal Canal.

Chapter V, B. and Rs. 8 per annum for each *jhallar*. The income, area irrigated, &c., is included with that of the Station Canal. The canal is 17 miles long.

Land and Land Revenue. **Macnabb's Canal.** This canal was formerly a small cut made in a natural depression of the country where the river occasionally overflowed. After being neglected for some years, it was made over by Captain Johnstone, Deputy Commissioner, to Sultán Ahmad Sháh, of Sháhpur, who cleared it; but as he subsequently allowed it to silt up, it was in 1877-78 taken in hand by Colonel Corbyn who enlarged and improved it. This canal takes out of the main river about three miles from Sháhpur, and is altogether 14 miles long, the last five miles of which is only a drainage line, and has never been properly excavated. Its alignment appears to be the worst possible for an irrigation canal. It can in most places only irrigate the land immediately adjoining its banks by overflowing them and everything else in the neighbourhood. This appears to be the only way in which most of the villages benefit by the canal at all. Taking the depth of water at the head of this canal in full supply as 2.5 feet, the discharge would be 35 cubic feet per second, irrigating 200 acres in 1879-80. The bed width is 12 feet and longitudinal slope 1 in 6,000.

Corbynwah or Khusháb Canal. This canal takes out of a secondary branch on the right bank of the river, just within the borders of the Jhelam district. The large branch from which that in which the head is situated takes off, used formerly to keep open and running all the year round. Lately, however, it has to a great extent silted up, and a channel through two to two-and-a-half miles of the river bed has to be cut every year in order to get a supply of water down to the canal head. A *band*, moreover, to force the water into the channel, has been made completely across the river branch, and this, although temporarily augmenting the supply, tends eventually to cause its total stoppage. The bed was excavated 24 feet wide; it is now 36 feet. The bed width varies very much in the first two miles, but taking it at the original amount, namely 24 feet, the longitudinal slope 1 in 3,200 and the depth of water three feet, the capacity is 141 cubic feet per second. (The longitudinal slope is that of the first two miles.) As in the new Sáhiwá Canal, only a little more than half the whole length works at all. Down to the village of Rajar, twelve miles from the head, the water runs freely and floods the country; the land to which the canal has been dug is higher than the water in the river at the canal head, and drainage water is said

to have been conveyed from the tail upwards. The canal was made by Captain Corbyn, Deputy Commissioner, in 1876, and has been in operation since 1877-78. The cost is said to have been about Rs. 18,000. The table in the margin gives the area irrigated, &c., for each year since the opening. The water rate is Re. 1 per acre and

	Area irrigated in acres.	Water rate. Rs.	Cost of main tenance. Rs.
1877-78	819	Rs. 1	Rs. 300
1878-79	645	Rs. 1.7	Rs. 260
1879-80	8,033	Rs. 2.20	Rs. 1,800

the length of the canal 20 miles.

The Rániwáh Canal has also the disadvantage of taking out of a branch of the river and not out of the main stream. The river has since cut into this branch, and the second or lower head of the Rániwáh is now in the main stream of the river. This branch leaves the main channel just below a village called Chak Nizám, some four or five miles above Miáni. At Chak Nizám the Jhelam channel is narrow and very well defined with high banks, which the villagers say have been undisturbed for many years. The earth composing them is much firmer than that usually found, and the river is said to show no tendency to do damage at this point when in flood. About five hundred feet down stream, where the head of the river branch is situated, the main channel suddenly widens, and there is therefore a great tendency for silt to be deposited in its entrance. When the river is very high a good supply will undoubtedly pass in, but the amount of silt in the mouth will render its duration very limited. The head of the Miáni branch of the Rániwáh is about three miles down stream, and that of the Main Canal two miles further on. The respective capacities of the two branches down to their junction three miles above Bhera are as follows:—

Miáni Branch.—Bed 20 feet; longitudinal slope 1 in 4,500; depth of water three feet, discharge 98 cubic feet per second.

Main Branch.—Bed 32 feet; slopes and depth of water as above; discharge 162 cubic feet.

The channel runs along the line of the old Rániwáh and below the junction of the two branches everywhere commands the country on each side of it. Below the junction the channel widens out at once to a 40-feet bed, giving, with a depth of three feet, a discharge of 205 cubic feet per second. On the whole, this canal is very efficient, and there is only a prospective difficulty about keeping its head well open.

The rates for flow irrigation are Re. 1-8 for grass and Rs. 2-8 for all other crops. *Jhalls* are charged Rs. 16 each per annum.

The area irrigated, amount of water rates, and cost of maintenance for the last eight years are given in the margin. The original cost of the canal was 21,500, so that the net average gain per annum for the last five years is 35.07 per cent, even although the average rate per acre has in the meantime decreased. The length of the canal is 23½ miles.

The Sháhpur canals may be divided into two kinds: (1) those which work well at present; and (2) those which do not. Among the former are, the Station, Sáhiwáh, and Rániwáh Canals. The latter are, the new Sáhiwáh, the Maenabb, and the Corbynwáh or Khusháb Canal. The Rániwáh Canal alone among the first three appears likely to decrease in efficiency. The river branch from which it rises is gradually silting up, so that the cost of maintaining the head open will probably increase.

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Rániwáh Canal.

	Area irrigated in acres.	Water Rates.	Cost of main- tenance.
1875-76	2,748	Rs. 7,219	Rs. 7,218
1876-77	6,802	17,432	6,255
1877-78	4,378	11,569	8,000
1878-79	10,314	25,211	8,392
1879-80	3,598	9,305	8,284
1880-81	5,193	13,76	7,205
1881-82	11,517	23,220	9,884
1882-83	18,341	45,412	2,429

General Remarks.

Chapter V. B.

Land and Land Revenue.

General Remarks.

The reasons for the partial failure of the last three are various. The Station Canal Extension or new Sahiwál Canal gets an insufficient supply, and also appears to have too little slope of bed. The dimensions of the channel also are not properly proportioned to the supply at various points. The Macnabb Canal has little command of the land through which it passes, so that irrigation from it can only take place where it is least wanted. Half the Corbyn Canal alignment is evidently wrong. Its head is also in a very unfortunate position. In the channels themselves the chief defects are: (1) being dug with vertical sides; (2) throwing the spoil as close to the edge as it will lie; (3) line of masonry works being different to line of canal; (4) The silt is heaped on to the original spoil, and thus half the silt is yearly deposited from the sides of the channel and only half brought in by the water.

Financial administration.

The financial result of the working of these canals justifies their efficient maintenance, and the opportunity of utilizing profitably the summer supply of water in the Jhelam renders their extension advisable. It will, however, be seen that the land near the river is far too much cut up by canals already, and therefore any new scheme, if not entirely an independent one, should at least aim at opening up a new tract to irrigation. The establishment employed on each canal is given in the following list:—

Station Canal and New Extension.	Corbyn Canal.
2 Jamádárs @ Rs. 10 and Rs. 8 per month.	1 Jamádár @ Rs. 15 per month.
4 Chaprásis @ Rs. 5 "	4 Chaprásis " 5 "
Sáhíndál Canal.	Rániwád Canal.
1 Jamádár @ Rs. 8 "	1 Munshi @ Rs. 20 "
2 Chaprásis " 5 "	1 Jamádár " 15 "
Macnabb Canal.	4 Chaprásis " 5 "
2 Chaprásis @ Rs. 5 "	

Thus the total establishment at present employed on these canals is as follows:—

1 Overseer	@ Rs. 50 per mensem
1 Do.	20 "
1 Dírogah	30 "
1 Muharir	20 "
1 Do.	15 "
1 Jamádár	15 "
1 Do	10 "
21 Chaprásis @ Rs. 5 per mensem	...	105 "	
	Total Rs.	...	265 per mensem.

The canals are worked by the *tahsildárs* through a *dárogah* and patrols. The clearance is carried out under the directions of the *tahsíl* officials by petty contract or task work, supervised by the canal patrols and *jamádárs*.

The canals work from about the middle of April to the end of August. The irrigation from the Government (*sarkári*) canals is measured by the village *patwáris* under orders of the *tahsildárs* and the rate of irrigation is different on various canals as follows:—

The Station Canal and New Sahiwál Canal.

The rate for flow irrigation is Rs. 2-8 per acre for all crops. For each Persian-wheel (*jhallár*) the charge is Rs. 16 for the season, and it irrigates about 30 acres.

Old Sathrud Canal.

For flow irrigation Re. 1 8 0 per acre.
 For each *jhalldr* 8 0 0 for the season.

For flow irrigation Re. 1 8 0 per acre.
 For each *jhalldr* 8 0 0 for the season.

Macnabb's Canal.
Corbynraik or Khushab Canal.
 The water rate is Re. 1 per acre.

Rānīndh.
 For flow irrigation Rs. 1 8 0 for grass.
 Do. 2 8 0 for all other crops.
 For each *jhalldr* " 16 0 0 each for the season.

The following figures show the working of the canals for the past six years. The total cost of construction may be stated approximately as Rs. 40,750.

Shahpur Inundation Canals.

Years	Length of Main Line	Area Irrigated.			Income. Occupier's rate.	Expenditure during last six years.
		Kbarif.	Habi.	Total		
Miles.						
1877-78	44	4,610	978	5,658	11,978	9,001
1878-79	49	7,082	2,129	9,210	15,515	8,301
1879-80	54	1,960	2,621	4,437	11,401	9,239
1880-81	61	5,704	8,429	9,135	7,507	6,617
1881-82	54	7,134	4,385	11,523	23,003	9,655
1882-83	51	7,520	4,803	12,321	12,710	9,350

The following table gives the number and names of the private canals in the Shahpur district, with their average income and expenditure, and the average areas watered by them, during the period of five years ending with the year 1882-83:—

Private canals.

Private Canals—Income, cost, and area of irrigation.

No.	Name of Canal	Average Income.	Average Expenditure.	Average area irrigated
1	Nangians	580	123	136
2	John Khan Wali	463	600	583
3	Hakim Khan and Fattah Khan Wali	4,200	3,830	2,100
4	M. Umar Hayat and Mir Haidar Shah Wali	2,472	1,815	1,823
5	Abdul Chand Wali	2,347	1,280	659
6	Makhdomen Wali	437	186	701
7	Makhan Dih Wali	87	133	69
8	Makhan Khan Wali	8	132	38
9	M. Sher Mohammad Khan Wali	2,104	2,003	2,627
10	M. Umar Hayat Khan Wali	67,820	21,157	10,000
11	M. Khuda Hukh Wali	6,781	6,338	2,355
12	Mekhan and N. Ali Mohammad Khan Wali	5,304	6,626	1,815
13	Sarfaraz Khan Wali	6,316	2,597	2,701
14	Chil or Jeden Khan Wali	6,118	6,127	2,466
15	Kandar Wali	1,609	101	463
16	Nathu Wali	3,025	55	1,013
17	Jhamdin Wali	772	62	226
18	Mabulian Wali	313	423	205
Total		1,02,510	51,215	31,031

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES, AND CANTONMENTS.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.

General statistics of towns.

Table II.	Town.	Persons.	Males	Females.
Sháhpur	Sháhiwál	8,890	4,310	4,584
	Sháhpur	7,762	4,367	3,395
Khusháb	Khusháb	8,949	4,470	4,519
	Girot	2,776	1,430	1,346
Bhera	Bhera	15,165	7,625	7,540
	Mianí	8,069	4,480	3,589

Town of Sáhiwál.

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Table XIX and its Appendix and Table XX. The remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions and public buildings, and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

The town of Sáhiwál lies in north latitude $31^{\circ} 58'$ and east longitude $72^{\circ} 22'$ and contains a population of 8,830 souls. It was formerly the head-quarters of a fiscal sub-division; it is one of the chief commercial towns of the district. It is not well built, and is completely surrounded by a *kacha* wall with six gates, of which the Láhori to the east and the Kashmírí to the north are the principal. The town is badly situated on a raised piece of ground, around which the surface drainage of the country for many miles round collects. It is said that Sáhiwál was founded by Gul Bahlak, one of the ancestors of the Biloch Chiefs of this place, and was so named after "Sai" of the Jhammat caste, who was the manager of the property. The municipality of Sáhiwál was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The committee consists of 11 members, with the Deputy Commissioner as its President. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years. Sáhiwál carries on a brisk trade with Multán and Sakhar in cotton, grain, and *ghí*, and its *banya* traders also carry on a large agricultural banking business, and are gradually but surely acquiring the land in the neighbourhood. It is also the centre of the barilla (*sajji*) trade for the surrounding *bár* tract.

The only manufactures for which Sáhiwál is noted are hardware and turnery in ivory and wood and lacquered work. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 75 to 78.

At the Census of 1881, all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all headquarters of districts and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule the places shown in the margin were returned as the towns of the district.

The public buildings are a school, a dispensary, a *sarai* with rooms for European and native travellers, a town-hall, and a *thána*.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Town of Sáhíwál.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town	{ 1861	8,910	4,863	4,039
	1881	8,520	4,316	4,501

Municipal limits	{ 1861	8,910
	1873	8,611
	1881	8,520

of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Sháhpur town.

Sháhpur is a small town of 5,424 inhabitants, at present at a distance of about two miles from the river Jhelum. It was formerly on the very bank of the river, which has of late been receding in the direction of Khusháb. Sháhpur with the adjoining villages Nathú-wálá, Kotlá and Jalálpur was founded by a colony of Saiyads who still form the proprietary body. One Sháh Shams was their common ancestor, and his tomb may still be seen near Sháhpur. The original tomb was to the north of the town, and was carried away by the river, when the coffin is said to have been removed to its present site, east of the town. He is now worshipped as a saint, and a large fair is annually held in his honor between 18th and 25th Chet (the end of March and beginning of April). A large number of people come from very long distances to worship this saint at his shrine, which is shaded by a grove of trees. At the last fair, held in the beginning of April 1884, it is estimated that 20,000 people were collected. A cattle fair was held in connection with this fair, and Rs. 500 were awarded in prizes. This town lies on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismail Khán and has some trade in cloth. It is three miles from the Civil station, and five from Khusháb. Though now removed from the river by a distance of two miles, in high floods the water still touches the walls. The road to Khusháb turns off at a right angle immediately in front of a picturesque gate, which leads into the only *bázár* of which the town can boast. The other gate, much smaller and ill built, leads to the river towards the north-west. The town has a school and a dispensary. In the western corner may be seen the low *kacha* walls of what was once a fort of the Saiyads, the site of which they still occupy; while outside the town and further east of the shrine of Sháh Shams, about one mile from the fort of the Saiyads, are the ruins of an old Sikh fort.

The town is a Municipality of the third class. The Municipal income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV.

The civil station of Sháhpur lies three miles to the east of the town on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismail Khán, and has a population of 2,328 souls. It is about in the centre of the district, where the *bár* begins to change into the fertile low-land strip of country stretching along the bank of the river. It is at present 30 miles from the railway. It has a small *bázár* neatly laid out, with fairly wide streets. The roads of the station are wide and well shaded by

106 CHAP. VI.—TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES, AND CANTONMENTS.

Chapter VI. trees, and are watered in hot weather from the inundation canal, which runs through the station. Picturesque glimpses of the Salt Range close the view to the west; good crops of grain and grass are raised in the lands attached to the station, chiefly by the aid of canal irrigation. The station has a large hospital, a school, two tanks and three public gardens. The annual horse fair is held here.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantons.

Sháhpur town.

The district court-house, the treasury and the *tahsil* are all substantial buildings of the usual type. There is also a police office, a Jail, and Police Lines with parade grounds. There is a sessions-house and a staging bungalow, and a commodious *sarai* was built

for the public benefit by the late Malik Sahib Khán, Tiwána, C.S.L. The church is in a pretty garden in the centre of the station.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 and 1881 is shown in the

margin.

Town or Suburb.	POPULATION.	
	1868.	1881.
Sháhpur town ...	4,743	5,424
Civil Lines ...	1,771	2,322

the people enumerated there being of a fluctuating description, composed largely of persons attending the courts, and other temporary in-comers. This is illustrated by the fact that while the proportion of males in every 100 persons is 51 in other towns, it is 17 in the civil station." The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Town of Khusháb.

The town of Khusháb lies in north latitude $32^{\circ} 17' 30''$ and east longitude $72^{\circ} 24' 30''$, and contains a population of 8,989 souls. It is situated on the right bank of the Jhelam on the Lahore and Deraját road, about eight miles from the civil station. Seen from the opposite bank of the river the town is picturesque. The town being quite on the edge of the river, it has several times been washed away by the stream. Year by year the river has encroached on the banks, so that a portion of the inhabitants are in turn driven out of their houses and obliged to build on the further side of the river. The town is partly surrounded by a *kacha* wall with four gates, of which Láhori to the east and Kashmírí to the north are the principal. There are no data for giving, with any degree of exactness, the year of foundation of Khusháb. It is said by local tradition to have been built in A.D. 1503. But it must have existed long before this, and is probably one of the oldest towns in

The table shown in the margin gives the population of suburbs.

The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the district report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of population observable in the civil lines: "This increase is only of an accidental nature, the majority of

this part of the Punjab, as it was a flourishing place in the time of Bâbâr, and is frequently mentioned by him in his memoirs. It is favourably situated on the right bank of the Jhelam, about eight miles from the civil station. Indeed, from the manner in which it is mentioned, it is clear that the old town must have existed when Bâbâr's ancestor, Tamerlane, invaded Hindustân in A.D. 1398. Very little, however, of the old town remains: for the last fifty years the river has been gradually cutting away its right bank at this spot, and with it have disappeared the gardens of the good Ahmadâyâr Khân, the fort built by Jâsâr Khân, Biloch, and nine-tenths of the older houses. In Colonel Davies' time a new town was laid out which, with its *bazâr* thirty feet wide and more than half-a-mile in length, and its open streets, promises to surpass the former one. The Nawâb, Ahunadyâr Khân, mentioned above, was Governor of Khushâb in Muhammad Shâh's time, and his tomb, about a mile to the south-west of the new town, is still a place of pilgrimage.

The municipality of Khushâb was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. It consists of 11 members with the Deputy Commissioner as President, the *talîsîdâr* the Vice-President, and the Hospital Assistant as *ex-officio* members. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years.

Khushâb carries on a large trade with Multân, Sakhar, Asghânistân, and the Derajât, sending down cotton, wool, and *ghâl* to the two former and country cloth to the latter, receiving in exchange English piece-goods, spices, iron, copper, &c., from Multân and Sakhar, dried fruits, maddor, &c., from Asghânistân, and sugar and *gur* from Amritsar and the Jalandhar Doâb. It is the great mart for the grain of the Salt Range, and large numbers of cattle are employed in taking salt eastwards, and bringing back rice, sugar, &c. The principal manufacture is that of coarse cloth and cotton scarfs, *lungis*, there being some 600 weaving establishments in the town. The manufacture of art pottery has been commenced. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note give at pages 75 to 78.

The public buildings are a *talâsî*, a *thâna*, a school, a dispensary,

Chapter VI.
Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Khushâb town.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons	Male.	Females
Whole town {	1862 1872 1881	8,200 8,050	4,331 4,470	4,869 4,610
Municipal limits {	1862 1872 1881	8,200 8,344 8,950

a *sarai* with rooms for travellers, and town-hall. At Khushâb we have the largest ferry in the district, as from here roads branch to Dera Ismail Khân, Miânwîli, Bannu and Tâlagang through the Salt Range. An English rowing boat is used for the dâk. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown in the margin.

The population at the Census of 1855 was 7,261. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Chapter VI.
Towns, Municipalities and Cantons.
Girot Town.

Girot is a small town, the population comprising 2,776 inhabitants, situated on the right bank of the Jhelam. The town itself is an unpretentious collection of native houses without a wall or any building of importance. It has a school, a police *chauki*, a dispensary, a municipal committee-house and a rest-house. The Municipal Committee consists of nine members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV. The original town of Girot was so named by a merchant of the Goria tribe, who founded it during the Choghatta rule, about 425 years ago. Subsequently, about 904 Hijri, one Malik Bijár, of the Biloc tribe, founded a village near it, naming it Tibbi; but this latter was afterwards destroyed by Ahmad Sháh, Ruler of Kábul, and the descendants of Malik Bijár then founded the present town, calling it Girot after the original name.

The sites of the old villages of Girot and Tibbi are still included in the limits of the present town.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	{ 1868 1881	2,789 2,776	1,451 1,430	1,335 1,336
Municipal limits	{ 1868 1881	2,790 2,776

The chief trade is in cloth manufactured by weavers there. This cloth is greatly prized in Afghánistán and Central Asia, where the trade mark is notorious. About Rs. 1,50,000 worth of cloth is exported annually.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 and 1881 is shown in the margin.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

**Town of Bhera,
Description.**

The town of Bhera lies in north' latitude $32^{\circ} 22'$ and east longitude $72^{\circ} 57'$ and contains a population of 15,165 souls. It lies on the left bank of the Jhelam, 30 miles east of Sháhpur. It is the head-quarters of a fiscal sub-division, and is the largest and most imposing town and the most thriving commercial centre of the district. The town is surrounded by a wall, partly *kacka* and partly *pakka* with eight gates, of which the Láhori Gate to the east and the Thánwála to the north are the principal. It is the best looking town in the district, being built of brick throughout. There are some ancient buildings with wonderful wood-carving. There are also some gardens outside the town, among which Thánwála garden, and one in which the tomb of Miran Said Mahamadi is built, are specially worthy of notice. It has a *sarai*, detached *tahsíl* and *thána*, a dispensary, a town-hall, and a district school.

The early history of the town of Bhera is discussed at some length by General Cunningham in his "Ancient Geography of India," pp. 155 to 159, and Archæological Survey Report, Vol. XIV, pp. 35 to 40. The original town stood on the right bank of the river, and in former days must have been a place of considerable note, for Bábár, in his autobiography, when speaking of his designs on Hindustán, talks of the countries of Bhera, Khusháb, &c., and again in describing Hindustán itself, he defines the limits of the

empire as extending from Bhera to Behár.* Some idea of its size may also be gained from the fact that it paid so large a sum as two lakhs of rupees to purchase its safety, when the troops under Bâbar, disappointed of expected plunder in Bajaur, arrived before it in A.D. 1519. Soon after this, says tradition, the adjoining hill tribes descended and destroyed the city. The ruins of the old town still remain, and are known by the name of Jobnâthnâggar. It is identified by General Cunningham as the capital of Sophites, or Sophetes, the contemporary of Alexander the Great.† The same author speaks of it as the refuge, and for some time the capital, of the Brâhman kings of Kâbul, expelled about the end of the 10th century by the Muhammadans.

The new town of Bhera was founded in A.D. 1540, during the reign of Sher Shâh, near a spot where a holy man calling himself Pir Kâya-nâth had for some time been established, and where his descendants are still residing round the tomb of their spiritual father. The place appears rapidly to have attained to its former size and importance, as it is one of the few places mentioned by name in the description of the Lahore *sâbâ* given in the *Ain-Akbari*, from which we also learn that it was the centre of a *mahal* which paid a revenue of nearly five lakhs of rupees, and was one of the few spots in the whole empire where money was coined. After being plundered and laid waste by Nûr-ud-dîn, as mentioned before, the town was repopulated by the Chiefs of the Bhangi *misl*, to whose share it fell in the division of the territory acquired by the Sikhs. Its appearance has been greatly improved under British rule.

The municipality of Bhera was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The Committee consists of 13 members with the Deputy Commissioner its President, the *tâksilâdâr* Vice-President, and the Hospital Assistant and the Head-Master of the school as *ex-officio* members. The members are selected by the Deputy Commissioner. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years.

Bhera is a place of considerable trade, but inferior in this respect to both Pind Dâdan Khân and Khushâb. A large colony of Khojâs and Pirâchâs, Muhammadan converts from Hinduism, are settled here, and carry on a traffic with Kâbul and the countries beyond it. Cotton was transported towards Sind in large quantities during the continuance of the American War; but the trade has now somewhat declined. Ghî is also sometimes sent down the Jhelam, the trade in this article being chiefly in the hands of Khojâs. Rice, *gâr* and sugar are imported from the Jalandhar Doâb; country cloth is exported to Kâbul, Multân, Derajât, and Sakhar. European cotton goods are brought from Amritsar and Karâchi. Coarse felts and hand *pankhâs* are exported in different directions. The town is also famous for ironsmiths and stone-cutters, as well as wood-carvers; an excellent felt and soap are manufactured, the former being exported in large quantities. A more

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Town of Bhera.
Description.

* Erskine's Baber, p. 255 and 310.

† Archaeological Report, 1863-64, p. 42.

Chapter VI.
Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Town of Bhera.
Description.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	{ 1868 1881	14,514 16,165	7,448 7,610	7,068 7,550
Municipal limits	{ 1863 1875 1881	14,614 14,710 16,165

detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 75 to 78. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881, is shown in the margin.

In 1855 the population was returned at the Census of that year as 13,973.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death rates per mille of population since 1868 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent Census:—

Year.	BIRTH RATES.			DEATH RATES.		
	Persons	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	19	20	18
1869	30	30	29
1870 ...	35	36	35	40	43	37
1871 ...	37	40	34	37	35	39
1872 ...	34	18	16	50	60	40
1873 ...	29	15	15	42	45	40
1874 ...	69	30	29	35	35	35
1875 ...	60	27	23	33	31	31
1876 ...	62	26	26	31	31	31
1877 ...	65	29	26	31	33	30
1878 ...	62	27	26	53	52	55
1879 ...	41	20	21	33	34	33
1880 ...	52	27	25	35	38	33
1881 ...	53	29	24	31	30	33
Average	47	25	24	35	33	33

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Town of Miáni.

The town of Miáni lies in north latitude $32^{\circ} 31' 48''$ and east longitude $73^{\circ} 7' 30''$, and contains a population of 8,069 souls. The town is situated on the left bank of the Jhelum, opposite Pind Dádan Khán, and is a 2nd class police station. The town is an ill-built town of narrow lanes and *bazárs*, the upper-storeys of the houses and shops almost touching each other. It is not surrounded by any wall. From time immemorial Miáni has been an important mart for the salt from the mines on the opposite side of the river. The original town was called Shamshábad. This was swept away by the river, and a town on the present site was built under the auspices of Asaf Khán, father-in-law of the Emperor Sháh Jehán, by two Hindus, Madho Dás and Shub Rám. Like Bhera, it grew and prospered till the decline of the Mughal monarchy, and, like Bhera, it was plundered and destroyed by Núr-ud-din, General of Ahmad Sháh, in A.D. 1754, and the inhabitants were dispersed in the neighbouring villages. In A.D. 1787, Máha Singh, father of Ranjit Singh, induced a number of the descendants of the old residents and others to rebuild the town, and re-opened the salt mart; but it appears never to have entirely recovered Núr-ud-din's

visitation, for the descendants of the families which then abandoned the place and took refuge in the adjoining villages are still to be found in the latter.

The municipality was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The committee consists of eleven members appointed and selected by the Deputy Commissioner. The income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV. The prosperity of the town depended mainly on the salt trade, which was carried on here on a large scale, for almost all the salt of the Mayo mines destined for down-country markets passed through it, the town being always known as Lün (salt) Miáni; but its golden days have vanished, the salt dépôt having been established at Lalá Musá. Four miles from Miáni is the small village of Chak Miáni. It was

Chapter VI.
Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Town of Miáni.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town	{ 1861 1871	6,657 6,162	3,363 3,450	3,293 3,502
Municipal limits	{ 1861 1871 1881	6,557 6,164 6,007	3,362 3,450 3,355	3,295 3,503 3,352

a salt mart when salt was conveyed across the river from Kheura by a wire tramway. The public buildings of Miáni are a police bungalow, a town-hall, a school, a sarai, with rooms for European and native travellers. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1861, 1871, and 1881, is shown in the margin.

Its population at the Census of 1855 was 6,005. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of population: "The increase in Miáni has wholly taken place within a little more than the last year, and is due to the opening of the Salt Branch Railway, which ends at the spot." The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

STATISTICAL TABLES

ANNEXED TO THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

SITAMPUR DISTRICT.

(INDEX ON REVERSE)

"ANNA TALUK" LAYOUT.

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Table No. IIIA, showing RAINFALL at head-quarters.

1	2	3	1	2	3
MONTHS.	ANNUAL AVERAGES.		MONTHS.	ANNUAL AVERAGES.	
	No. of rainy days in each month— 1867 to 1870.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month— 1867 to 1870.		No. of rainy days in each month— 1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month— 1867 to 1876.
	January	2	September	2	16
February	..	1	October	..	4
March	..	4	November	..	4
April	..	5	December	..	5
May	..	8	1st October to 1st January	..	11
June	..	17	1st January to 1st April	..	21
July	..	27	1st April to 1st October	..	100
August	..	32	Whole year	..	141

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXIV of the Revenue Report, and from page 34 of the Finance Report.

Table No. IIIB, showing RAINFALL at Tahsil Stations.

1	2	3	4	5
AVERAGE FALL IN TENTHS OF AN INCH, FROM 1873-74 TO 1877-78.				
TAMIL STATIONS.	1st October to 1st January.	1st January to 1st April	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.
Khushab	..	7	28	124
Bhora	..	8	30	150

NOTE.—These figures are taken from pages 36, 37 of the Finance Report.

Table No. V, showing the DISTRIBUTION of POPULATION.

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I and XVIII of the Census of 1851, except the cultivated, culturable, and crop areas, which are taken from Tables Nos. I and XLIV of the Administration Report.

Shahpur District.]

Table No. VI, showing MIGRATION.

Districts.	Immigrants	Emigrants	4	5	6	7	8
			MALES PER 1,000 OF BOTH SEXES.		DISTRIBUTION OF IMMIGRANTS BY TAHSILS.		
			Imml. grants	Emigr. grants	Shahpur	Khushab	Mian.
Gujranwala	5,167	2,246	523	476	166	89	2,582
Rawalpindi	350	2,076	591	766	82	95	173
Jhelum	5,184	8,118	450	525	609	1,203	9,412
Gujrat	6,517	4,137	487	406	284	114	6,120
Jhang	6,004	5,549	640	489	2,007	605	8,604
Dera Ismail Khan	561	8,765	617	618	65	475	21
Binu	493	2,731	610	632	96	366	36

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. VII, showing RELIGION and SEX.

	DISTRICT.	Persons.	Male.	Female.	5	6	7	8
					TAHSILS.			Villages.
					Shahpur.	Khushab	Bhara.	
Persons	122,073	131,015	167,220	369,677
Males	14,585	17,232	29,609	194,085
Females	55,048	64,333	77,451	174,889
Hindus	69,031	50,370	25,473	19,801	14,070	21,782
Sikhs	6,702	2,601	2,071	1,431	2,000	3,771
Jains	4
Buddhists
Zoroastrians
Muslims	331,742	188,714	169,029	101,591	114,629	141,282
Christians	29	22	7	17	10	2
Others and unspecified
Europeans & Eurasian Christians	20	20	6	15	10	1
Sunnis	331,107	185,367	107,830	98,601	112,158	140,378
Shiahs	6,287	3,210	3,075	2,037	2,444	5,488
Wahabis	233	107	120	23	..	233

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables No. III, IIIA, IIIB of the Census of 1881.

Table No. VIII, showing LANGUAGES.

Language.	1	2	3	4	5
	District.	DISTRIBUTION BY TAHSILS.			
		Shahpur.	Khushab.	Bhara.	
Hindustani	708
Punjabi	420,258
Pashtu	495
Kashmiri	16
Nepalese	1
Persian	1
English	27
					336
					147
					225
					131,239
					166,929
					221
					84
					9
					12
					1
					1
					1
					2
					10

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1881.

Table No. IX, showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Serial No. in Census Table No. VIIIA.	Caste or tribe.	TOTAL NUMBERS.			MALES, BY RELIGION.				Proportion per mille of popula- tion.
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Hindu.	Sikh.	Jain.	Muslim	
	Total population	421,108	221,676	199,832	30,350	2,605	5	189,713	1,000
18	Biloch	6,815	4,521	4,341	4,724	21
6	Pathan	8,076	5,185	3,891	1,895	7
1	Jat	31,508	18,769	15,740	654	390	..	17,524	52
2	Raiput	62,290	45,731	39,551	113	31	..	43,385	105
12	Arain	48,475	24,793	21,087	24,895	116
59	Khokhar	10,295	5,672	4,623	5,672	21
7	Arum	5,574	4,672	4,002	4,672	20
17	Shekh	7,490	3,672	3,817	3,672	18
37	Mughal	2,995	1,755	1,090	1,255	6
4	Brahman	6,462	2,940	2,602	2,940	12	..	8	15
24	Gujr	8,625	4,437	4,188	4,437	20
21	Nal	7,641	5,063	3,578	27	5,063	18
25	Mitral	8,944	4,812	4,002	1	4,841	20
16	Khatri	15,018	7,926	7,092	7,510	400	..	19	26
10	Arora	29,017	17,644	17,373	15,920	1,012	..	112	83
4	Chuhra	25,297	15,082	19,216	840	62	..	14,070	07
19	Mochi	17,911	7,945	7,369	1	7,944	36
9	Julha	23,473	11,817	10,655	11,817	53
28	Machhi	11,156	6,848	5,204	6,846	26
22	Lehar	5,074	2,716	2,358	2,746	12
11	Tarkhan	10,270	5,467	4,803	4	1	..	5,462	24
15	Kunhar	11,709	6,220	5,489	6,220	25
22	Dhobi	5,071	2,911	2,712	4	2,907	13
29	Teli	2,112	1,112	899	1,182	5
29	Qasab	5,202	2,697	2,615	2,697	12
30	Sunar	5,597	3,311	1,786	1,065	15	..	553	9

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1891.

Table No. IXA, showing MINOR CASTES
and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No. in Census Table No. VIIIA.	Caste or tribe.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
8	Gujr
27	Ahur
25	Faqir, miscellaneous and unspecified	1,089	637	452
42	Mallah
41	Khojih
48	Phurai
69	Bhatiya
70	Ulama
89	Bazigar

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1891.

Table No. XIB, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Month	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	Total
January	555	498	540	1,12	384-	2,621
February	318	129	770	46	589	2,185
March	600	125	646	304	911	2,011
April	216	113	415	536	820	1,703
May	203	115	501	318	406	2,075
June	117	57	576	540	229	2,209
July	918	270	722	291	811	1,672
August	210	177	47	451	259	1,764
September	219	535	353	370	921	1,674
October	294	1,033	431	473	464	2,631
November	42	1,131	441	365	464	1,111
December	45	518	401	512	445	2,099
TOTAL	4,107	6,725	5,992	7,070	4,488	26,841

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XII, showing INFIRMITIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All religions	India		Bengal		Diac and Dumb		Lepers	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	217	115	1,113	1,220	155	270	62	23
Total Villages	115	131	1,153	1,255	493	235	53	27
Hindus	23	9	11	143	43	17	2	1
Sikhs		1		5	5			
Musalmans	191	15	1,180	1,372	402	240	60	27

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XII to XVII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIII, showing EDUCATION.

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
All religions	Males		Females			Males		Females	
	Under in struction	Can read and write	Under in struction	Can read and write		Under in struction	Can read and write	Under in struction	Can read and write
	3,512	10,599	97	130	Musalmans	1,465	2,600	6	15
Total Villages	2,202	6,670	78	77	Christians	1,195	3,662	6	15
Hindus	1,701	7,932	7	40	Tribal Shahpur	1,194	2,438	58	45
Sikhs	163	560		8	Khurab	1,628	4,193	11	14
Buddhists			"	"	Bhara			28	17

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIV, showing detail of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
	CULTIVATED					UNCULTIVATED					Gross area assess- ment	Unappropri- ated out of the area assess- ment
	Irrigated					Uncultivated						
	By Gov- ernment works	By pri- vate in- dividuals	United States	Total cul- tivated	Grass ing lands	Cultiv- able	Un- cultiv- able	Total unculti- vated	Total area assessed			
1878-79	2,2,800	170,680	423,070	2,070,360	503,610	2,751,010	3,002,720	105,810	300,610			
1878-79 Tribal details for Tribal Shahpur	8,124	81,010	4,257	470,301	801,147	1,265,483	407,070	2,647,340	3,037,107	416,178	201,637	
" Khushab	50,010	920,470	107,042	524,943	700,912	1,139,410	946,122	2,477,411	3,002,432	116,018	197,786	
" Bhera	20,410	181,812	10,435	102,210	157,011	278,401	153,501	609,110	750,000	155,971	173,631	

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Administration Report, except the last column, which is taken from Table No. I of the same Report.

Shahpur District]

Table No. XXV, showing TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

NATURE OF TENURE.	Wards District.						TANSHI KUCHHAR.						TANSHI BHURA.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
A.—ESTATES NOT BEING VILLAGE COMMUNITIES, AND RATING IN COMMON (ZAMINDARI).																		
17.—Ratings 1,000 Rs. & FIELD by individuals or families under the ordinary peasant and $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{private} \\ \text{and} \\ \text{under} \end{array} \right\}$ law.	10	10	19	16,223	0	0	0	7,502	10	10	10	11,921		
B.—PEASANTY CULTIVATING VILLAGES AND VILLAGES.																		
B.—Zamindari	40	364	60,836	20	20	164	18,237	2	2	22	20,457	16	18	178	21,772			
D.—Bhuyachera	116	13,704	947,108	116	116	13,704	947,107			
H.—Affid or finger	445	24,610	609,557	192	103	6,078	367,694	12	12	2,063	5,190	241	14,478	548,507				
I.—Affid or finger	25	2,497	20,801	1	1	6,011	21	24	2,486	104,250				
II.—Leases	41	400	44,131	17	17	121	16,748	5	5	31	4,104	19	19	218	21,287			
Q.—Landholders who have retained the revenue and are not members of any village community nor attached to any peasant class.	2	2	6	4,113	1	1	5,000	1	1	4	1,112			
I.—Government waste, reserved or unassigned	168	..	80,090	61	245,658	76	405,700	40	150,402			
TOTAL	854	688	41,698	9,002,482	391	210	8,374	660,015	735	100	18,320	1,585,303	328	283	14,914	764,009		

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXXII of the Revenue Report for 1878-79.

Table No. XXVI, showing TENURES not held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

NATURE OF TENURE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	District Sialkot.	District Shahpur.	Taluk Khushab.	Taluk Khushab.	Taluk Bhakkar.				
<i>A.—TENANTS WITH RIGHT OF OCCUPANCY.</i>									
<i>I. Payment of rent.</i>									
<i>(a) Paying the amount of Government revenue only to the proprietor's agent.</i>	673	3,123	714	1,681	23	20	500	1,619	
<i>(b) Paying such amount, plus a cash payment.</i>	1,728	13,616	31	350	992	9,010	495	3,657	
<i> In cash.</i>									
<i> Total paying rent in cash.</i>	2,114	17,119	14	1,014	10,679	17,119	6,304		
<i>II. Paying rent.</i>									
<i>(a) Paying a stated share of the revenue.</i>	101	1,071	11	1,865	220	1,102	420	1,074	
<i>(b) Producing and delivering in kind.</i>	120	121	20	260			100	123	
<i> Total paying rent in kind.</i>	1,122	1,914	31	2,125					
<i> Total paying rent in kind.</i>	21,073	7,12	4,975	1,213	10,741	1,211	6,357		
<i> Grand Total of Tenants with right of occupancy</i>	27,300	14,134	17	10,712	13	4,104	218	24,287	
<i>B.—TENANTS HOLDING CONDITIONALLY</i>									
<i> For period ^(a) written on his</i>									
<i> C.—TENANTS AT WILL.</i>									
<i>I. Paying cash.</i>									
<i> Paying in kind.</i>									
<i> (a) Producing and delivering in kind.</i>	675	10,470	1,440	5,350	225	14,350			
<i> (b) Less than $\frac{1}{2}$ produce.</i>	10,415	10,001	10,770	10,115					
<i> (c) More than $\frac{1}{2}$ produce.</i>	1,522	79,290	21,311	15,152	2,019	6,819	6,819		
<i> Total paying cash.</i>	22,412	101,691	22,882	26,622	2,244	21,980	21,980		
<i> Total paying in kind.</i>	11	27	9	30	2	7	
<i> Grand Total of Tenures.</i>	21,010	211,002	87,403	6,901	27,500	8,610	90,004		

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXXIV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XVII, showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

1	2	4	4	5	6	7	8	9
			Acres held under cultivating lease		Remaining acres			Under Forest Department
			No. of estates	Total acres	Cultivated	Uncult. Valid	Under Forest Department	
Whole District	179	845,69	16,873	29,593	274,924			526,714
Tahsil Shahpur	45	25,32	7,708	10,770				2,910
" Khushab	90	41,49	2,570	13,449				2,010
" Bhera	41	172,03	7,310	12,754	141,51			11,618
								Average yearly income, 1877-78 to 1881-82

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Revenue Report of 1881 b.

Table No. XIX, showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

Purpose for which acquired	Acres acquired	Compensation paid, in rupees.	Reduction of revenue, in rupees
Roads	2,034	7,078	1,102
Canals	45	85	17
State Railways	1.6	2,920	15
Guaranteed Railways			
Miscellaneous	14	182	8
Total	2,227	10,271	1,142

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XX, showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
YEARS	Total	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajra	Makai	Jam	Gram	Uloth	Poty	Tobacco	Cotton	Indigo	Sugarcane	Vegetables
1878-74	230,731	77,0	134,296	15,7,1	107,604	917	9,267	8,204	7,947	1,743	815	20,150	580	2,270	2,852
1874-75	257,887	844	133,078	17,3,1	82,119	906	9,221	15,196	9,227	2,084	889	21,380	170	27,604	1,072
1875-76	230,291	1,057	168,651	14,3,1	45,129	939	11,410	9,34	6,507	2,084	873	24,680	500	1,312	11,072
1876-77	255,039	990	190,32	20,654	37,493	884	15,657	21,617	5,504	2,162	835	20,029	1,014	3,092	1,020
1877-78	287,300	659	146,074	8,012	7,450	765	15,81	11,097	7,709	2,145	961	24,942	1,042	1,380	16,020
1878-79	300,222	614	187,104	12,407	6,794	2,197	10,015	784	12,311	2,72	1,092	42,760	1,042	23,481	8,977
1879-80	227,950	1,562	17,466	12,888	5,17	1,918	9,90	4,350	9,850	3,403	983	1,042	1,155	1,201	1,450
1880-81	305,221	1,220	177,279	12,23	64,213	3,075	5,482	7,030	8,141	1,201	1,064	20,062	1,042	23,481	1,450
1881-82	334,318	1,94	163,471	20,790	62,102	2,517	9,408	4,140	6,862	3,49	1,228	81,154	6	1,450	1,610

NAME OF TAHSIL

TAHSIL AVERAGE OF THE FIVE YEARS FROM 1877-78 TO 1881-82

Shahpur	63,799	157	47,090	8,180	4,221	23	9,780	3,935	730	2,04	361	18,410	1	101	2,973
Khushab	132,721	655	63,912	4,732	33,382	678	1,021	2,079	135	320	107	5,874	5	2,960	259
Bhera	110,687	460	60,504	6,404	9,055	1,400	4,017	1,004	3,007	6,8	880	9,123	1,094		
TOTAL	337,208	1,170	177,407	18,266	46,600	2,100	10,519	5,462	8,936	3,035	1,058	28,357	1	1,201	6,192

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXI, showing RENT RATES and AVERAGE YIELD.

	Nature of crop	1			2		3	
		Rs	A	P	Rs	Average produce per acre as estimated in 1891-92		
Rice	Maximum	12	0	0	Rs	692		
	Minimum	5	0	0				
Indigo	Maximum	45	0	0		60		
	Minimum							
Cotton	Maximum	8	0	0	Rs	70		
	Minimum	4	0	0				
Sugar	Maximum	42	0	0				
	Minimum	19	0	0				
Opium	Maximum	77	0	0	Rs	11		
	Minimum	19	0	0				
Tobacco	Maximum	17	0	0	Rs	600		
	Minimum	7	0	0				
Wheat	Irrigated	15	0	0				
	Unirrigated	7	0	0	Rs	792		
Inferior	Irrigated	9	0	0				
grains	Unirrigated	2	0	0				
	Maximum	19	0	0	Rs	613		
	Minimum	4	0	0				
Oil seeds	Irrigated	14	0	0	Rs	210		
	Unirrigated	4	0	0				
	Maximum	14	0	0				
	Minimum	2	0	0				
Fibres	Irrigated	14	0	0	Rs	728		
	Unirrigated	4	0	0				
Gram	Maximum							
Bulley	Minimum							
Burn								
Jawar								
Vegetables								
Tea								

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLVI of the Administration Report

Table No. XXII, showing NUMBER of STOCK

KIND OF STOCK	WHOLE DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS			TALUKS FOR THE YEAR 1878-79		
	1878-79	1878-79	1878-79	Shalipur	Rhulib	Bhera
Cows and bullocks	154,110	159,561	31,926	68,372	110,053	62,381
Horses	1,521	115	920	157	213	550
Ponies	1,061	2,294	1,000	72	887	50
Donkeys	0,405	10,754	9,071	1,850	9,211	3,950
Sheep and goats	172,838	152,613	166,219	29,500	98,407	38,250
Pigs						
Camels	16,906	15,449	9,920	2,107	6,053	1,670
Carts	1,612	1,514	806	205	8	3
Ploughs	33,583	46,410	46,018	13,514	21,714	17,020
Boats						
	84	68	93	25	45	37

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLV of the Administration Report

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Number	Nature of occupations	Males above 15 years of age			Number	Nature of occupations	Males above 15 years of age		
		Towns	Villages	Total			Towns	Villages	Total
1	Total population	16,689	116,410	132,109	17	Agricultural labourers	71	1,611	1,682
2	Occupation specified	16,271	101,807	110,478	18	Pastoral	93	8,021	8,114
3	Agricultural, whether simple or combined	3,035	57,993	61,033	19	Cooks and other servants	361	1,859	1,933
4	Civil Administration	795	1,363	2,158	20	Wagon-carriers	68	85	93
5	Army	31	104	137	21	Sweepers and scavengers	108	1,950	2,058
6	Religion	463	1,038	1,446	22	Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c.	103	343	446
7	Barbers	206	1,420	1,626	23	Workers in leather	8	..	8
8	Other professions	101	279	380	24	Boot makers	192	3,460	3,552
9	Money-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c.	35	627	662	25	Workers in wool and pashm	25	39	66
10	Dealers in grain and flour	1,313	4,618	5,931	26	,, silk	5	..	5
11	Corn grinders, puchors, &c.	4	41	85	27	,, cotton	1,645	7,522	8,367
12	Confectioners, green grocers, &c.	419	96	515	28	,, wood	698	2,085	2,683
13	Carriers and boatmen	725	3,500	4,815	29	Potters	212	1,818	1,830
14	Landowners	1,296	29,696	30,992	30	Workers and dealers in gold and silver.	256	764	1,020
15	Tenants	1,515	22,614	24,450	31	Workers in iron	116	873	983
16	Joint cultivators	7	359	366	32	General labourers	1,649	4,452	6,001
					33	Beggars, fakirs, and the like	1,475	6,408	7,882

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII A of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. XXIV, showing MANUFACTURES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fabrics	Paper	Wood.	Iron	Brass and copper.	Buildings	Dyeing and manufacturing of dyes.
Number of mills and large factories										
Number of private looms or small works.	100	6,973	123		1	1,071	463	27	126	109
Number of workmen (Male in large works.	68
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	154	10,104	201	1,463	690	30	182	177
Value of plant in large works										
Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees	21,040	18,29,568	37,162	..	4,807	1,40,019	81,044	35,780	16,814	28,304
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
	Leather.	Pottery, common and glazed.	Oil pressing and refining.	Pashmina and Shawls.	Carpets	Gold, silver, and jewellery.	Other manufactures.	Total.		
Number of mills and large factories										
Number of private looms or small works.	2,213	1,177	230		4	627	440	13,683		
Number of workmen (Male in large works.	68		
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	2,930	1,185	806	..	5	943	760	19,626		
Value of plant in large works										
Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees.	4,20,290	1,04,151	69,239	..	287	7,99,837	51,453	36,82,310		

Note.—These figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures for 1881-82.

Table No. XXX, showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE.

TANSHI	TOTAL AREA AND REVENUE ASSIGNED	PERIOD OF ASSIGNMENT													
		Whole villages		Fractional parts of villages		Plots		Total		In perpetuity					
		Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue				
Shahpur Bhawhab Bhara	7,741 2,812 3,417	4,714 18,122 1,104	920	336	1,668 2,000 2,074	1,236 1,233 2,340	10,773 18,839 5,474	5,918 19,846 2,754	7,318 53,041 302	4,396 16,785 506					
Total District	1,02,425	28,570	920	336	5,712	4,780	1,07,001	29,478	91,621	21,683					
		12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
TANSHI	PERIOD OF ASSIGNMENT—Continued										NUMBER OF ASSESSES				
	For a life		For more than one		During a single		Establishment		Tenure of Government						
	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	In perpetuity	For one life	For more than one	During maintenance	Pending orders
Shahpur Bhawhab Bhara	5,001 2,151 3,330	1,184 5,416 1,264			937 64 1,633	438 44 1,640					93 21 57	1 16	1		21
Total District	104,851	5,898			5,635	2,022					58	130	18		230

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII of the Revenue Report for 1911-12.

Table No. XXXI, showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

YEAR	Balances of revenue in rupees		Reductions of fixed demands on account of remissions, deterioration, &c., in rupees	Takavi advances in rupees
	Fixed revenue	Fluctuating and selected balances revenue		
1910-11	16,276		97	2,550
1910-12	5,714		45	11,110
1910-11	10,127		20	11,150
1911-12	1,236		9	10,773
1911-12	7,489		810	2,396
1911-12	7,014		2,048	812
1911-12	4,001		715	
1911-12	4,575	959		
1911-12	4,345	1,161	727	2,110
1911-12	3,009	1,020		770
1911-12	5,612	101		820
1911-12	5,991	510		
1911-12	1,153	112		670
1911-12	5,411	6,758		910

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, III, and XVI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXXIII A, showing REGISTRATIONS.

	2		2	3	4	5	6	7
			Number of Deeds registered.					
			1880-81			1881-82.		
			Compul- sory.	Optional	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional	Total.
Registrar Shahpur
Sub-Registrar Shahpur	234	22	509	250	144	403
.. Bhera	974	130	469	392	60	418
.. Khushab	103	67	207	184	55	259
Total of district			821	421	1,245	775	285	1,060

Note.—The figures are taken from Table No. I of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIV, showing LICENSE TAX COLLECTIONS.

YEAR.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
	NUMBER OF LICENSES GRANTED IN EACH CLASS AND GRADE.														
	Class I.				Class II				Class III.				Total number of licences	Total amount of fees.	Number of villages in which licences granted.
	1 Rs. 500	2 Rs. 200	3 Rs. 150	4 Rs. 100	1 Rs. 75	2 Rs. 50	3 Rs. 25	4 Rs. 10	1 Rs. 5	2 Rs. 2	3 Rs. 1				
1878-79
1879-80
1880-81
1881-82
1881-82— Total of Shahpur
.. Khushab
.. Bhera

Table No. XXXV, showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

YEAR.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	FERMENTED LIQUORS.						INTOXICATING DRUGS.						EXCISE REVENUE FROM		
	Number of central distilleries	No. of retail shops.		Consumption in gallons		No. of retail licences.	Consumption in gallons		Consumption in gallons		Consumption in gallons		Per- mitted liquors	Drugs	Total.
		Country spirts	Eng. land	Rum.	Country spirts		Opium	Other drugs	Opium	Changs	Brang	Other drugs			
1877-78
1878-79
1879-80
1880-81
1881-82
Total	10	45	41	236	4,678	15	15	2	16	173	271	..	22,027	92,460	81,487
Average	..	9	9	79	936	7	53	..	4,405	12,492	10,897

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VIII, IX, X, of the Excise Report.

Table No XXXVI, showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
YEAR	Annual income in rupees			Annual expenditure in rupees							
	Provincial rates	Viceregal out	Total in come	Turbish munt	District ports and thorahal ture	Education	Medical	Viceregal out	Public Works	Total ex- penditure	
	1874-75		24,250	1,120	2,27	4,21	1,91	210	12,209	22,715	
1875-76		9,912	1,251	1,110	4,57	4,19	1,15	11,105	21,456	21,456	
1876-77		7,671	1,914	2,27	4,15	5,802	1,15	22,447	7,716	22,447	
1877-78	91,091	1,105	1,250	3,250	4,51	5,39	1,15	11,105	0,91	11,105	
1878-79	27,404	1,111	1,252	3,252	4,51	5,116	1,15	11,105	2,01	2,01	
1879-80	84,893	5,002	29,146	1,115	3,15	5,116	1,15	11,105	1,01	1,01	
1880-81	84,997	1,612	57	1,15	1,4	5,05	1,05	11,105	1,775	1,775	
1881-82	25,972	1,503	56,614	1,152	4,11	5,20	1,15	11,105	0,659	11,105	

Note.—These figures are taken from Appendices A and B to the Annual Review of District Fund operations.

Table No. XXXVII, showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
YEAR	HIGH SCHOOLS						MIDDLE SCHOOLS						PRIMARY SCHOOLS							
	ENGLISH		VERNACULAR		ENGLISH		VERNACULAR		ENGLISH		VERNACULAR		ENGLISH		VERNACULAR					
	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Schools	Schools		
Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	Schools	

FIGURES FOR BOYS

1877-78							1	149			3	629					25	1,311	7	257
1878-79	-						1	151			3	614					25	1,170	7	257
1879-80							1	95			3	52					21	1,685		
1880-81							1	64			3	52					21	1,781		
1881-82							1	47			3	52					21	1,911		

FIGURES FOR GIRLS

1877-78																		1	10	
1878-79																		1	14	
1879-80																		1	13	
1880-81																		1	12	
1881-82																		1	12	

N.B.—Since 1879-80, in the case of both Government and Aided Schools, those schools only who have completed the Middle School course are shown as attending High Schools, and those only who have completed the Primary School course are shown as attending Middle Schools. Previous to that year, boys attending the Upper Primary Department were included in the returns of Middle Schools in that case of Institutions under the immediate control of the Education Department, whilst in Institutes under District Officers, boys attending both the Upper and Lower Primary Departments were included in Middle Schools. In the case of Aided Institutions, a High School included the Middle and Primary Departments attached to it, and a Middle School the Primary Department. Before 1879-80 Branches of Government Schools, if supported on the grant in aid system, were shown as Aided Schools, in the returns for 1879-80 and subsequent years they have been shown as Government Schools. Branches of English Schools whether Government or Aided that were formed included amongst Vernacular Schools are now returned as English Schools. Hence the returns before 1879-80 do not afford the means of making a satisfactory comparison with the statistics of subsequent years.

Indigenous Schools and Jail Schools are not included in these returns.

Table No. XXXVIII, showing the working of DISPENSARIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17					
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED																			
		Men.					Women					Children									
		1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.					
Shahpur D. City Branch	1st	5,114	6,108	6,229	6,115	4,216	3,12	67	1,190	1,561	55	512	76	552	1,491	3,015					
	2nd	3,512	3,682	3,484	4,07	7,152	2,047	2,000	2,002	2,000	2,04	1,837	1,829	1,973	780	1,500					
Bhera	3rd	5,417	6,511	6,570	7,422	7,221	1,701	1,085	1,471	1,437	1,704	1,913	1,411	1,729	1,060	9,928					
Chital	4th	5,171	5,772	5,573	4,123	4,016	1,963	1,642	1,204	1,012	1,02	1,415	1,616	1,571	1,282	1,557					
Khushab	5th	5,274	5,110	2,015	2,003	4,341	1,673	1,71	1,201	1,409	1,02	870	1,00	1,253	1,735	2,183					
Mian	6th	4,6	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	1,073	1,033	1,205	1,470	1,114	1,094	1,753	1,766	1,907	1,471					
Sambrial	7th	5,094	5,235	5,24	5,023	5,023	1,175	1,210	1,007	1,007	91	747	945	704	806	906					
Borders	8th	5,771	5,651	5,477	5,71	5,716	1,175	1,20	1,20	1,20	1,20	1,073	932	1,206	1,116	1,167					
Millanrao	9th	5,073	5,291	2,074	2,003	1,057	1,000	1,001	1,001	1,001	1,001	1,175	1,21	640	535	725					
Nampur	10th	5,763	5,75	1,75	1,75	1,75	74	419	624	624	624	1,073	1,073	1,073	1,497	1,348					
Ghot	11th	—	1,412	2,400	2,71	2,71	—	—	—	—	—	—	349	376	573	1,000					
Total	..	31,810	37,105	37,172	40,420	49,135	10,372	17,003	14,707	14,400	15,677	10,110	12,200	15,010	18,780	36,872					
		18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32					
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	Total Patients.						Individual Patients						Expenditure in Rupees.							
		1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Shahpur D. City Branch	1st	6,128	7,431	8,2	8,177	6,135	522	372	2,5	2,90	278	3,804	9,311	3,783	4,773	3,473	470	572	573	472	477
D. City	2nd	5,21	5,411	7,421	4,462	6,701	7	5	—	—	—	374	74	1,246	1,246	1,246	704	1,246	859	1,182	1,242
Khushab	3rd	5,311	5,67	91	10,20	11,001	105	124	126	147	104	301	458	704	825	812	415	440	542	542	542
Khushab	4th	5,674	5,21	5,21	5,21	5,21	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	
Mian	5th	5,577	5,418	5,418	5,418	5,418	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	1,111	
Sand	6th	5,015	5,07	5,07	5,07	5,07	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	6,67	
Borders	7th	5,716	4,411	4,411	4,411	4,411	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	5,410	
Millanrao	8th	5,674	5,12	4,72	4,948	4,948	5,537	1	31	20	50	21	755	470	471	554	677	471	471	471	
Nampur	9th	5,067	5,11	2,701	4,415	4,415	5,410	5	—	—	—	765	491	491	491	491	479	479	479	479	479
Ghot	10th	—	—	71	6,203	6,203	6,203	—	—	—	—	5	50	197	884	492	501	501	501	501	
Total	..	23,918	27,079	27,704	22,71	710	84	710	710	710	710	9,410	10,200	8,410	10,810	9,684	—	—	—	—	—

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. II, IV, and V of the Dispensary Report.

Table No. XXXIX, showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A total of Civil Suits concerning			Value in Rupees of Suits concerning *			Number of Revenue cases
									Money or movable property.	Rent and tenancy in h.	Land and revenue, and other matters	Total	Land	Other matters	Total
1878	3,912	—	—	500	—	4,412	—	10,774	1,617	777	2,01,311	—	—	3,415	—
1879	7,229	91	1,143	1,143	—	4,412	—	21,240	2,18,712	—	2,40,020	—	—	4,405	—
1880	4,455	20	1,073	1,073	—	6,229	—	22,745	2,34,313	—	2,76,011	—	—	3,770	—
1881	5,153	27	616	616	—	6,229	—	61,348	2,51,591	—	2,81,079	—	—	3,934	—
1882	4,501	21	502	502	—	6,074	—	29,467	2,51,613	—	2,81,050	—	—	4,105	—

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. VI and VII of the Civil Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. II and III of the Reports on Civil Justice for 1881 and 1882.

* Suits heard in Settlement courts are excluded from this column, no details of the value of the property being available.

Table No. XL, showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

1		2		3		4		5		6	
DETAILS		1878		1879		1880		1881		1882	
Persons tried.	Brought to trial		3,173		3,295		3,761		4,041		4,931
	Discharged		1,268		1,121		1,780		1,476		1,705
	Acquitted		145		165		289		513		508
	Convicted		3,818		3,512		3,736		3,002		3,667
	Committed or referred		51		30		15		15		75
Cases disposed of.	Summons cases (regular) (summary)									91	1,053
	Warrant cases (regular) (summary)									1	15
	Total cases disposed of		1,674		1,777		1,663		1,610		1,682
Number of persons sentenced to	Death		1							2	2
	Transportation for life									4	3
	Transportation for a term		1		9		2				
	Penal servitude										
	Fine under Rs. 10		74		1,011		1,032		1,223		1,425
	" 10 to 50 rupees		62		62		42		208		200
	" 50 to 100 "		40		25		10		24		21
	" 100 to 500 "		1				1		3		4
	" 500 to 1,000 "										
	Over 1,000 rupees										
	Imprisonment under 6 months		211		212		250		238		245
	6 months to 2 years		241		238		253		216		201
	" over 2 years		16		17		12		15		16
	Whipping		49		77		72		59		58
	Fine, surcharge, etc. of the person		12		14		17		165		221
	Recognizance to keep the peace		19		25		12		31		4
	Give sureties for good behaviour		40		67		61		172		153

Note.—These figures are taken from State parts Nos. III and IV of the Criminal Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. IV and V of the Criminal Reports for 1881 and 1882.

Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

Nature of offence.	Number of cases inquired into						Number of persons arrested or summoned						Number of persons convicted																			
	1877			1878			1879			1880			1881			1877			1878			1879			1880			1881				
	1877	1878	1879	1878	1879	1880	1877	1878	1879	1878	1879	1880	1877	1878	1879	1878	1879	1880	1877	1878	1879	1878	1879	1880	1877	1878	1879	1878	1879	1880		
Rioting or unlawful assembly	17	15	14	18	26	229	171	167	234	40	161	143	102	184	242																	
Murder and attempts to murder	1	8	10	7	9	1	12	17	8	21	1	4	3	7	6																	
Total serious offences against the person	34	51	60	57	56	57	93	101	86	92	72	31	67	57	45																	
Abduction of married woman																																
Total serious offences against property	177	179	231	250	215	116	149	148	190	109	73	92	98	74	70																	
Total minor offences against the person	15	27	19	29	26	35	47	35	48	48	29	41	29	34	35																	
Cattle theft	112	125	161	187	173	100	167	210	155	170	68	91	143	93	99																	
Total minor offences against property	362	352	432	581	470	378	418	477	602	521	205	320	319	907	903																	
Total cognizable offences	608	627	761	946	797	822	912	926	1,091	1,190	717	972	616	719	700																	
Rioting, unlawful assembly, affray	7	5	6	2	4	26	81	50	4	22	33	33	29	4	18																	
Offences relating to marriage	1	8	2	2		0	8	6	2		4	7	1	2	..																	
Total non cognizable offences	66	81	74	44	23	11	215	151	95	15	138	147	111	76	77																	
GRAND TOTAL of offences	674	710	832	850	819	945	1,150	1,107	1,155	1,181	703	799	787	791	737																	

Note.—These figures are taken from Statement A of the Police Report.

Table No. XLII, showing CONVICTS in GAOL.

1	2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		13		14		
	Age in months at the time of convicting year		Age in months during the year		Total no. of convicts		Total no. of convicts		Total no. of convicts		Total no. of convicts		Total no. of convicts		Previous occupation of male convicts												
YEAR	Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		
	1577-78	155	155	155	23	21	11	10	17	17	12	12	17	17	13	13	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	1578-79	155	155	155	23	21	11	10	17	17	12	12	17	17	13	13	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	1579-80	155	155	155	23	21	11	10	17	17	12	12	17	17	13	13	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	1580-81	155	155	155	23	21	11	10	17	17	12	12	17	17	13	13	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	1581-82	155	155	155	23	21	11	10	17	17	12	12	17	17	13	13	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
					16	10	17	18	19	10	20	21	22	23	24	25	26										
					Length of service of convicts																						
					Length of service of convicts																						
					Length of service of convicts																						
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Table No. XLIV, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

TOWN.	Sex.	Total population by the Census of 1875.	Total births registered during the year.						Total deaths registered during the year.					
			1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.		
			Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		
Bheta	Males	7,001	423	402	403	399	423	242	205	257	247	231		
	Females	7,100	366	364	365	374	412	216	302	232	272	234		

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. LVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLV, showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

NAME OF MUNICIPALITY	Mian.	Sial.	Khushab.	Ghori.	Shahpur.	Gidr.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
							III.						
Class of Municipality													
1870-71	3,650	10,373	7,561	10,431									
1871-72	5,539	9,145	8,584	11,644									
1872-73	5,104	9,150	7,770	10,584									
1873-74	4,890	8,202	7,006	11,245									
1874-75	4,233	8,641	9,602	10,276									
1875-76	3,107	6,772	8,084	8,448	1,607	2,078							
1876-77	3,694	6,230	9,310	8,010	1,860	1,611							
1877-78	3,165	6,413	10,288	9,490	2,334	2,144							
1878-79	3,391	7,625	17,168	10,143	1,801	2,034							
1879-80	3,605	10,033	10,792	11,295	1,071	4,072							
1880-81	3,096	8,179	8,847	11,616	1,603	4,160							
1881-82	6,562	8,213	5,502	10,878	1,455	2,768							

Table No. XLVI, showing DISTANCES.

Shalpur, a	..	Shahpur.
Jhawarian, b 11 Jhawarian
Ghakrundi, b 20 9 Ghakrundi.
Bhert, c 31 20 11 Bhert.
Minal, b 40 20 20 9 21 Minal.
Bar Mula, 42 36 25 19 11 Bar Mula.
Mithi, b 43 33 33 22 20 14 Kothmora.
Kothmora, b 34 26 20 20 22 15 14 Kothmora.
Miana Gondal, b 37 33 23 15 13 4 24 12 Miana Gondal.
Dhrem, c 10 14 20 20 33 28 26 35 Dhrem.
Mithi Lak., b 21 20 18 21 22 20 8 29 11 Mithi Lak.
Dhanganwala, c 22 30 23 21 24 23 12 14 24 22 11 Dhanganwala
Lekhdi, c 42 37 34 36 31 31 8 13 15 23 21 10 Lekhdi.
Sahwala, b 21 23 42 53 61 67 45 41 54 20 27 36 42 Sahwala.
Jals 31 21 26 31 40 50 57 45 40 32 40 51 57 43 Jals.
Khabbala, 23 26 22 35 46 57 62 51 53 30 44 55 67 43 Khabbala.
Neushabha, b 22 29 30 52 51 60 61 51 57 30 46 55 67 20 13 7 Neushabha.
Ujhali 29 34 42 50 60 63 70 63 53 30 49 71 40 21 15 Ujhali
Sakesar 44 39 47 55 64 72 75 15 63 44 64 61 70 42 25 16 19 5 Sakesar
Khabhab, a 8 19 29 39 49 48 49 50 64 38 59 40 70 22 21 24 34 33 30 Khabhab
Jabbi 21 31 33 47 55 61 64 54 53 32 42 53 60 29 22 18 12 10 14 15 Jabbi.
Vachha 30 35 46 55 64 72 63 68 40 50 63 74 33 29 15 9 9 25 8 Vachha.
Kiri Golwala, 41 43 53 61 69 77 79 73 73 48 57 70 70 63 32 30 10 12 7 31 15 8 Kiri Golwala.
Mitha Tivara, b 23 37 46 57 60 63 61 62 59 47 58 63 22 20 27 22 20 21 18 9 10 22 Mitha Tivara.
Girot 17 28 25 46 55 57 61 54 54 19 28 40 47 6 51 36 32 38 15 34 30 37 15 Girot.
Nurpur, 47 51 63 74 63 84 73 60 70 63 64 75 85 36 35 30 24 30 Nurpur.